

# SOCIAL EDUCATION

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OFFICIAL JOURNAL OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES  
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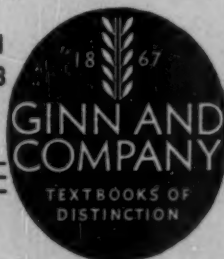
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## Editor's Page

### *Directors' Resolutions*

*The following resolutions were adopted by the Board of Directors at the Annual Convention of the National Council for the Social Studies which was held in New York on November 24-26, 1955.*

1. WHEREAS it is recognized that the democratic way of life rests on freedom to learn, *resolved*: that teachers should be free to deal with controversial issues and to present all sides of such issues.
2. *Resolved*: that education for citizenship is incomplete without the study of the United Nations and the principal world organizations associated with it.
3. WHEREAS at least a half million children in migratory farm families are severely handicapped by lack of normal home and community life, too early employment, and meager opportunities for schooling, *resolved*: that the National Council for the Social Studies calls for appropriate local, state, and federal action to ameliorate their plight, and commends to its members a study of the problem as it exists in their state.
4. *Resolved*: that no teacher should be dismissed because of alleged subversive affiliations on the basis of the testimony of informers whose identities are withheld from the accused.
5. *Resolved*: that during the investigation of teachers for alleged subversive affiliations, questions should not be asked concerning a teacher's religious beliefs or affiliations.
6. *Resolved*: that teachers have the same political rights and responsibilities as other adults and should be free to participate in political campaigns, whether local, state, or national, provided they refrain from displaying partisanship in the schoolroom.
7. Recognizing that the rulings of the Supreme Court against segregation in public education confront our nation with an opportunity and with many problems, *resolved*: that the National Council for the Social Studies urges that teachers and the public use the opportunity to study the meaning of democracy and its applications to the implementation of the Supreme Court rulings.
8. WHEREAS there is a tendency to neglect the social studies in programs of terminal education both at the secondary and post-secondary level, *resolved*: that the National Council for the Social Studies favors action to obtain greater emphasis on the social studies in such programs.
9. *Resolved*: that the National Council for the Social Studies expresses deep gratitude to the many individuals and organizations who have contributed to the success of this annual meeting. We particularly wish to thank the Elementary, Junior High, and Senior High School Divisions of the Board of Education of the city of New York; William A. Hamm and Harrison G. Thomas, Co-Chairmen of the Local Arrangements Committee; Arthur Bernstein, President of the Association of the Teachers of Social Studies of the City of New York; Abraham Sondak, Coordinator of local arrangements; Morris Gall, Clare T. Bauch, Irving J. Halprin, Daniel M. Feins, Jack Entin, Saul Israel, Irving Cohen, Albert Post, Mildred Tractenberg, Raymond E. Smith, Clarence E. Linville, Edward Kolevzon, Dorothy W. Furman, Samuel Halperin, Grace Rivoli, and Eveleyn Harris, all chairmen of subcommittees of the Local Arrangements Committee; the officials of the United Nations; Mrs. Walter B. Myer and the Civic Education Service; the American Textbook Publishers Institute; the New York Stock Exchange; the Federal Reserve Bank; the Theodore Roosevelt House Association; and the *New York Times*.

# Problems in Teaching About Russia

Alfred A. Skerpan

**A** FEW months after the end of World War II the two problems that would beset Americans for the foreseeable future were already clearly defined. One, that of living with nuclear fission bombs, was glaringly obvious. The other, however, though at first glance equally obvious, was grasped much more slowly and with much greater difficulty. This was the problem of living maturely and without panic in a world containing an expansionist Communism.

Learning fully about the second problem, learning about Russia and the Soviet Union, has proved difficult. For Americans there has been the force of the past. It had been so easy, so pleasant, to live free of world responsibilities, that the desire to avoid them remained, as even now, fairly strong. But contributing as much to the difficulty has been the inadequacy of the knowledge and therefore of much of the writing and teaching about Russia. Too little is known by too many who should know much.

What accounts for this inadequacy of the knowledge—and therefore the teaching—about Russia and the Soviet Union? Part of the explanation rests in the fact that the traditional approach, in studying and teaching history and the social studies, has been emphasis on *western* civilization, rather than on European or world civilization. There are good arguments for the traditional approach, but the point remains that by it the development of Russia tends to be treated in the most cursory fashion. However, even if the approach, from this point of view had been satisfactory, there are reasons resting in history itself why study and teaching about Russia would still have been inadequate.

One of the crucial phases of modern Russia's development lies in the 60 years that preceded the

revolutions of 1917. To the present time there are most serious gaps in the basic research and writing necessary to illumine those 60 years. These gaps reveal themselves immediately in the shortcomings of textbooks which, in dealing with this period, can be worse than unsatisfactory. And if the textbook writers can be inadequate to the job, one can imagine the inadequacies of the teachers.

Recently the present writer examined a high school text on world history that was published in 1954 by a respected firm. The book is useful and desirable in many respects, even in regard to periods and phases of Russian history. But in it are made the following statements:

a. Most Russians were serfs until late in the nineteenth century—the number of serfs is given at 50 million.

b. In the nineteenth century the Russian tsars tried to compel the subject nationalities to speak only Russian and to adopt the Russian Orthodox faith.

c. Only 25 percent of the people were literate before the revolutions of 1917.

d. The tsars tried to control their people by keeping them illiterate.

e. Russia was mainly an agricultural nation before World War I.

Perhaps taken individually the statements are not too important; there are instructors at even the college level who will so argue. Taken together, however, what is the general impression that is left as to the nature of Russia and the tsarist regime on the eve of revolution? Obviously the picture is one of economic stagnation, illiteracy widespread, and arbitrary despotism under a tyrannical and oppressive government.

Suppose we correct the statements in the light of more careful study and research;

a. Less than 40 percent of the Russians were serfs on the eve of emancipation in 1861—the number was 20 million.

b. It is not true that efforts were made to compel subject nationalities to speak only Russian; in the main the policy that was pursued—and sometimes harshly—was to introduce a *lingua franca*, a second language, for the dozens of nationalities in the empire; in certain instances non-Russian languages were actually fostered by the

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Dr. Skerpan worked with the Office of Strategic Services during World War II, first as a political analyst, then as an intelligence officer in the European Theater. Later, in 1947-48, he carried on special studies of Russian civilization at Columbia University and, in 1954-55 on a Fulbright grant, at the University of Helsinki. He is now a professor of history at Kent State University in Ohio.

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regime. The statement touching on religion is even less true.

c. On the eve of the revolutions of 1917 the literacy rate was over 50 percent.

d. Governmental encouragement of elementary education began in the 1860's, and just before World War I a program was inaugurated by the legislative body of the empire that would have provided for universal compulsory elementary education by 1923.

e. Russia had gone through the crucial primary stages of an industrial revolution before World War I.

Thus corrected the picture is considerably changed, although, of course, it was never idyllic. We find that rapid cultural strides were being made, that there was a most significant expansion of economic life and public service, that political freedom was developing, and that local and representative government had both shown marked growth. It is of importance to realize that in the last decade of tsardom there were 12 political parties represented in the imperial legislative body and that writings of future Communists were published rather freely.

The persistence of the negative picture is a hindrance to a proper assessment not only of tsarist Russia but also of the Soviet Union. Quite simply, following the reactions of human nature in the learning process, which has a marked tendency to be "historical," the worse the tsarist period looks or is made to look, the better the Communist period seems or is made to seem. At the worst the seizure of power by the Bolsheviks in 1917 comes to be considered by students and writers as something that was probably not only acceptable but even desirable and necessary for the great mass of Russians. The following are the gaps and errors which appear in the textbook already cited, and which derive directly from a faulty appreciation of pre-revolutionary history and, therefore, of the Bolshevik movement:

1. The bloody civil war of 1918-20 is made to appear as a result of intervention of foreign powers—whereas it was the expression primarily of widespread internal resentment against the Bolsheviks.

2. The essential world-wide aspect of Bolshevik-Communist ideology is hardly touched on, while the Communist International's program is referred to (in reference to the 1920's) as a "failure" and while the old error is repeated that Stalin aimed only at socialism in one country.

3. The Communists "wiped out" illiteracy.

4. The Communists industrialized Russia.

5. The Five Year Plan was "generally" a success—whereas it involved the loss of 5 million human lives and the loss of almost one-half of all domestic animals; the progress in industrialization that was made would have been unthinkable without the strong base that had been created before World War I.

We return to the point made earlier that the reasons why the last 60 years of Tsarist Russian history has been treated so poorly in writing and teaching rest in history itself. First, the generations of Russian scholars who might have done the necessary research and writing on the period either emigrated after the revolutions of 1917 or were repressed; among the emigres a strong and understandable liberal bias against the old regime persisted. Again, much knowledge of Russia had been gained earlier by the West through western and emigre scholars, writers, and publicists who were hostile to the country or the regime for nationalist or political reasons. Further, Communists and their sympathizers have, for obvious reasons, exaggerated the dark sides of the tsarist period. As an additional point, it should be noted that potential advanced students of Russia in the West, and particularly in the United States, have been frequently discouraged from entering the field because of the efforts that have to be made in gaining a knowledge of three or more foreign languages, including the difficult Russian, in mastering new forms and contexts of historical development, and in achieving research goals in the face of inadequate library resources.

In the face of all this the natural question is, what can be done if anything to achieve a more adequate understanding of Russia and the Soviet Union. The most important thing to note is that the numbers of specially trained researchers and teachers are growing. More and more, therefore, the teacher of social studies will have the opportunity of studying and working with specialists. A course or series of courses on Russia and the Soviet Union would appear to be, in the middle of the twentieth century, a must on any study program of the responsible teacher. College and university libraries, in the meanwhile, carry key periodicals, such as *The Russian Review* and the *American Slavic and East European Review*, which print reports of latest researches. And for the complete novice there are useful histories of Russia. The best short history is George Vernadsky's *A History of Russia* (preferably the fourth edition). The fullest up-to-date work is Michael T. Florinsky's *Russia: a History and an Interpretation*.



# Recent Supreme Court Decisions: The Federal Loyalty-Security Program

Isidore Starr

THE case of *Peters v. Hobby et al.*, 349 U.S. 331 (1955), highlights three problems indigenous to our time: the rights and privileges of a federal employee, the security requirements of a democratic community engaged in a Cold War against Communism, and the dilemma of judges who are called upon to draw the tenuous line between the two.

## THE FEDERAL EMPLOYEE

Let us begin with the man in the case. Dr. John Peters is a specialist in metabolism and a Professor of Medicine at Yale University. For several years he had been employed as a special consultant in the United States Public Health Service of the Federal Security Agency—now the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The latter was headed by Mrs. Oveta Culp Hobby at the time of this case.

Dr. Peters' federal job was to render advice on proposals relating to assistance grants to various medical research institutions. His duties required his presence in Washington from four to ten days a year, when called upon by the Surgeon General. "This work," concluded our High Court, "was not of a confidential or sensitive character and did not entail access to classified material."

He was first investigated in 1949 by the Board of Inquiry on Employee Loyalty of the Federal Security Agency because derogatory information relating to his loyalty had been received. After filling out a detailed questionnaire on his associations and affiliations, he was advised that *no reasonable grounds existed for the belief that he was disloyal*.

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For five years the author, who teaches social studies in Brooklyn (New York) Technical High School, and who numbers among his numerous accomplishments not one, but two, law degrees (B.L.; D.J.S.), has analyzed significant Supreme Court decisions for the readers of this journal. In this, the concluding article in the current series, Dr. Starr discusses one of the most complex issues the judges have ever had to face.

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In May, 1951, after the standard of removal for federal employees had been changed from reasonable grounds for disloyalty to reasonable doubt as to loyalty, his case was reopened with the charges of "alleged membership in the Communist Party, sponsorship of certain petitions, affiliation with various organizations, and alleged association with Communists and Communist sympathizers." The two-day hearing before the Agency Loyalty Board is summarized by the Supreme Court in these words:

The sources of the information as to the facts bearing on the charges were not identified or made available to petitioner's counsel for cross-examination. The identity of one or more of the informants furnishing such information, but not of all the informants, was known to the Board. The only evidence adduced at the hearing was presented by petitioner. He testified under oath that he had never been a member of the Communist Party and also testified concerning the other charges against him. He did not refuse to answer any question directed to him. Petitioner's testimony was supported by the testimony of eighteen other witnesses and the affidavits and statements of some forty additional persons.

One month after this hearing, Dr. Peters was notified that the Agency Board had decided that there was *no reasonable doubt as to his loyalty*.

On April 6, 1953, he was informed by the Loyalty Review Board that it was undertaking a "post-audit" of the determination of the subordinate Agency Board for the purpose of reaching its own decision. At this third investigation, Dr. Peters answered all questions put to him and denied membership in the Communist Party. The only evidence presented openly at the hearing was that of Dr. Peters. As for the evidence against him, the identity of some of the informants but not all, was known to the Board. Nor was the identity of any of these informants ever disclosed to Dr. Peters. And, according to the Court, "The information given by such informants had not been given under oath."

On the basis of its "post-audit" the Loyalty Review Board decided that "on all the evidence, there is reasonable doubt as to Dr. Peters' loyalty to the Government of the United States." Thereupon he was removed from his position and

"barred from the Federal service for a period of three years from May 18, 1953." At the time of his removal he was employed under an appointment expiring December 31, 1953.

#### THE FEDERAL LOYALTY-SECURITY PROGRAM

As Alan Westin points out in his excellent pamphlet, *The Constitution and Loyalty Programs*,<sup>1</sup> the United States has experimented with four major loyalty policies. The first, the Roosevelt-Hatch Act Program (1940-1946), began by proscribing federal employee membership in organizations advocating the overthrow of our constitutional form of government and ended with an attempt by the Civil Service Commission to evaluate the loyalty of applicants for government jobs.

This was succeeded by the Truman Anti-Disloyalty Program, which began on March 21, 1947, with the issuance of Executive Order 9835. This directive made the head of each department and agency in the Executive Branch of the Government "personally responsible for an effective program to assure that disloyal civilian officers or employees are not retained in his department or agency." Each department or agency was required to establish loyalty boards "for the purpose of hearing loyalty cases arising within such department or agency and making recommendations with respect to the removal of any officer or employee . . . on grounds relating to loyalty. . . ." Provision was also made for the establishment of a central Loyalty Review Board in the Civil Service Commission with the power to review cases involving persons recommended for dismissal by the loyalty boards of the departments and agencies. The standard for removal was whether, "*on all the evidence, reasonable grounds exist for belief that the person involved is disloyal to the Government of the United States*" (italics added). The Attorney General was authorized to draw up lists of subversive organizations. It was under this Executive Order that Dr. Peters was tried and was found loyal.

The third stage in the loyalty-security picture sprang from the Truman Loyalty Program (1951-53). This was initiated on April 28, 1951, by Executive Order 10241, which changed the standard for removal of federal employees. The former requirement of reasonable grounds of disloyalty

was now made to read: "*on all the evidence, there is reasonable doubt as to the loyalty of the person involved to the Government of the United States*" (italics added). This new standard made it easier to reach adverse decisions in doubtful cases. As we indicated above, under this second standard, Dr. Peters was once again cleared of the charges against him.

Although the Eisenhower Security-Risk Program (1953 to the present) is not involved in this case, it is deserving of mention at this point. Executive Order 10450, issued on April 27, 1953, placed in the hands of each agency head the responsibility of administering the new security risk system. The new standard provided for removal if there is "information indicating that the employment of any officer . . . may not be clearly consistent with the interests of national security . . ." Although the Loyalty Review Board was abolished, it was permitted to continue in operation until it had made a final determination of cases still pending before it. It was the voluntary "post-audit" of this Board which led to the removal of John Peters.

In February, 1954, Dr. Peters brought action, seeking a declaration from the Court which would make invalid his removal and disbarment from federal employment. He charged that he had been deprived of his liberty and property without due process of law, since he had been denied any opportunity to confront and cross-examine his secret accusers. His right to freedom of speech, he maintained, had been violated by a removal and disbarment solely on the basis of his political opinions. In addition, charged the petitioner, the Loyalty Review Board had exceeded its authority to make advisory recommendations.

#### THE COURT'S DILEMMA

Probably, the most difficult issue to adjudicate in the field of constitutional law is that of the nature and extent of human rights. More specifically, today this issue generally takes the form of this question: How can we mesh the requirements of national security with the traditional American safeguards for accused individuals?

In 1951, the Truman Loyalty Program was brought before the Court in *Bailey v. Richardson*, where the Justices divided four to four on the constitutionality of the removal of employees who are not permitted to confront or cross-examine their accusers at any time. This deadlock automatically sustained the lower court decision upholding the dismissal on the ground that due

<sup>1</sup> This is one of the Freedom Agenda Pamphlets published by the Carrie Chapman Catt Memorial Fund, Inc. (1954). The address is 164 Lexington Ave., New York 16, New York.

process is irrelevant in cases where executive offices are "held at the will of the appointing authority." On the other hand, in *Joint Anti-Fascist Refugee Committee v. McGrath* (1951), the five to three decision held that the Truman Anti-Disloyalty Program did not empower the Attorney General to arbitrarily designate organizations as subversive. Adequate notice and hearings in the Federal District Courts were essential to this procedure. Neither of these two cases was sufficiently impressive to serve as precedents in the present case.<sup>2</sup>

The Court begins its opinion in the Peters Case with the statement that it represents "serious and far-reaching problems in reconciling fundamental constitutional guarantees with the procedures used to determine the loyalty of government personnel." Happily for the seven to two majority, the Court discovers that the case can be decided without reaching the constitutional issues. Since the Loyalty Review Board's action with reference to Dr. Peters was patently beyond its delegated jurisdiction under Executive Order 9835, there is no need to examine the fundamental problem. The Board, writes Chief Justice Warren for the majority, had no right to undertake a voluntary "post-audit." Its authority was limited to cases recommended for dismissal by the loyalty boards of departments or agencies. Even in cases of this type, the Review Board could not undertake a review on its own motion. The Board, by amending its own regulations, gave itself the power to "post-audit" and review cases on its own initiative, regardless of whether an appeal had been taken. Its "post-audit" regulation, therefore, exceeded the limitations of President Truman's Order.

Chief Justice Warren concludes his opinion with the declaration that Dr. Peters' removal and disbarment are invalid. The members of the Civil Service Commission are ordered to expunge from the records the findings of the Loyalty Review Board that there is reasonable doubt as to the petitioner's loyalty. Nor is he to be barred from federal employment by reason of this unwarranted finding. However, reinstatement cannot be granted as the term of employment had expired on December 31, 1953. And so, Dr. Peters won his case, but was out of a federal job.

Justices Douglas and Black wrote separate concurrences. Recognizing that the Court has

often declined to anticipate a question of constitutional law in advance of the necessity of deciding it, they took the position that, if there is any case that calls for immediate jurisdiction, it is this one. Justice Black raised the question of the constitutionality of the present loyalty procedures with this argument:

... But I wish it distinctly understood that I have grave doubt as to whether the Presidential Order has been authorized by any Act of Congress. That order and others associated with it embody a broad, far-reaching espionage program over government employees. These orders look more like legislation to me than properly authorized regulations to carry out a clear and explicit command of Congress. I also doubt that the Congress could delegate power to do what the President has attempted to do in the Executive Order under consideration here. And of course the Constitution does not confer lawmaking on the President.

Justice Douglas approaches the issue from another angle. He does not question the actions of the Loyalty Review Board, although conceding that the terms of the Executive Order in question may be ambiguous. For him all this is secondary compared to the constitutional issue posed by the facts in the case. In phrases pungent and even vitriolic, he condemns the practice of "faceless informers." To permit this practice is to "violate our basic constitutional guarantees and ape the tactics of those whom we despise." He, thereupon, states the case for due process of law in his characteristic fashion:

Confrontation and cross-examination under oath are essential, if the American ideal of due process is to remain a vital force in our public life. We deal here with the reputation of men and their right to work—things more precious than property itself. We have here a system where government with all its power and authority condemns a man to a suspect class and the outer darkness, without the rudiments of a fair trial. The practice of using faceless informers has apparently spread through a vast domain. It is used not only to get rid of employees in the Government, but also employees who work for private firms having contracts with the Government. It has touched countless hundreds of men and women and ruined many. It is an un-American practice which we should condemn. It deprives men of "liberty" within the meaning of the Fifth Amendment, for one of man's most precious liberties is his right to work. When a man is deprived of that "liberty" without a fair trial, he is denied due process. If he were condemned by Congress and made ineligible for government employment, he would suffer a bill of attainder, outlawed by the Constitution. . . . An administrative agency—the creature of Congress—certainly cannot exercise powers that Congress itself is barred from asserting.

Justice Reed begins his dissent, in which Justice Burton concurred, with the statement that he was not expressing any opinion on the constitutional problems which the Court may ultimately have to face. He underscores the validity

<sup>2</sup> These two cases are summarized in *Social Education*, November 1951.

of the action of the Loyalty Review Board, arguing at length that it correctly interpreted the intention of the President's Order. He contends that the technicality on which the majority built its case cannot stand scrutiny, as there is precedent to show that the Board could review decisions favorable to employees, and that the President had knowledge and approved of this practice.

It is obvious that the *Peters* case leaves unresolved the issue as to whether government employees may lawfully be ousted as security risks on the basis of secret evidence. It is, however, reasonably certain that the problem will be brought again before the judiciary in the very near future. For our High Court must eventually speak out authoritatively on this perplexing question of human rights.

### Unforgettable Authors

Carl Gustav Jung was born in Basel, Switzerland, in 1875. He studied medicine at the University of Basel and, upon graduation in 1900, turned to psychology and psychiatry. Among his numerous and influential works is *Modern Man in Search of a Soul*, which appeared in print in 1933. We are indebted to the publishers, Harcourt, Brace and Company for permission to quote from the recently printed paper-bound edition (\$1.15) of this influential book:

"... the man we call modern, the man who is aware of the immediate present, is by no means the average man. He is rather the man who stands upon a peak, or at the very edge of the world, the abyss of the future before him, above him the heavens, and below him the whole of mankind with a history that disappears in primeval mists. The modern man—or, let us say again, the man of the immediate present—is rarely met with. There are few who live up to the name, for they must be conscious to a superlative degree. Since to be wholly of the present means to be fully conscious of one's existence as a man, it requires the most intensive and extensive consciousness, with a minimum of unconsciousness. It must be clearly understood that the mere fact of living in the present does not make a man modern, for in that case everyone at present alive would be so. He alone is modern who is fully conscious of the present.

"The man whom we can with justice call 'modern' is solitary. He is so of necessity

and at all times, for every step towards a fuller consciousness of the present removes him further from his original '*participation mystique*' with the mass of men—from submersion in a common unconsciousness. Every step forward means an act of tearing himself loose from that all-embracing, pristine unconsciousness which claims the bulk of mankind almost entirely. Even in our civilizations the people who form, psychologically speaking, the lowest stratum, live almost as unconsciously as primitive races. Those of the succeeding stratum manifest a level of consciousness which corresponds to the beginnings of human culture, while those of the highest stratum have a consciousness capable of keeping step with the life of the last few centuries. Only the man who is modern in our meaning of the term really lives in the present; he alone has a present-day consciousness, and he alone finds that the ways of life which correspond to earlier levels pall upon him. The values and strivings of those past worlds no longer interest him save from the historical standpoint. Thus he has become 'unhistorical' in the deepest sense and has estranged himself from the mass of men who live entirely within the bounds of tradition. Indeed, he is completely modern only when he has come to the very edge of the world, leaving behind him all that has been discarded and outgrown, and acknowledging that he stands before a void out of which all things may grow...."



# Map Skills Developed in Grade Six

Harriett Chace

WHEN the sixth grade teacher at the Centerville School began to work with her class in developing map skills, she was reminded of the fact that the possession of a skill does not always guarantee a habit of using that skill. Although many skills had been taught in the lower grades and had been mastered by the children, they had not formed the habit of using these skills in their daily work. For example, the way some of them thumbed through books in search of maps, one might think that they had never heard of a map index, although they had had training in the use of such indexes in the lower grades. The teacher urged the children to practice this skill, to use the map index in the encyclopaedia, in the atlas, and in their various textbooks. They soon found that the constant use of this skill saved them much time and trouble.

## MAP SCALES

Because the drawing of maps to scale depends so much on a high degree of competence in arithmetic, it was decided that map scales would not be introduced until the sixth grade. The teacher brought up the subject in the arithmetic class. She explained that a scale could be shown by a statement in words, by a line or bar graph, or by a representative fraction.

The group chose rectangular objects in the room and drew them, using a scale of one inch to one foot. Next they drew the school room itself, changing their scale to one inch to five feet. Doors, windows, and furniture were carefully measured and the dimensions in feet written on the board. Then, using their scale, the class changed these measurements to inches. Since the sixth grade had a good working knowledge of fractions, they were able to do good work and the floor plans were quite accurate.

Another opportunity to work with scale draw-

ing came when the group decided to measure the playground for more accurate baseball and softball diamonds. The actual measurements of the playground were easily reduced by means of a scale. Maps could then be drawn and all the planning for the proposed diamonds could be done in the classroom. When the actual outdoor work was done, the children had an opportunity to see how much easier it was to work from a scale drawing or "blue-print."

Not only did the youngsters work with the maps they themselves had drawn, but they practiced reading maps drawn to scale and compared the size of their state to the entire area of the United States. They compared the size of North America with that of other continents. They discussed distances. The teacher led them to talk of places and events with which they were familiar. How far was it to the place where a certain important news event had taken place? How far did one of the girls in the class travel when she went with her family to Florida?

A time scale and problems related to it were mentioned to the class, and the teacher felt that the children learned enough from the ensuing discussion to understand what a time scale actually was. On the other hand, the teacher reached the conclusion that perhaps sixth-graders were a bit too young to accomplish much in the use of time scales.

## SYMBOLS

The reading and using of map symbols had been highly developed in the lower grades, but a new device was introduced in the sixth grade, the use of intensity to show altitude. The children learned to use the profile in showing heights. They copied relief maps, substituting colors for the existing map key. They compared the amounts of rainfall and the growing seasons in our region with others in the world, reading the various map keys with ease. Other symbols were introduced to show the kinds and sizes of cities and towns. In all this work, much help was found in the Rand McNally workbook, *Steps in Map Reading*.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Mamie Louise Anderzhon. *Steps in Map Reading*. New York: Rand McNally, 1949.

This is the fourth and concluding article in a series prepared by the author. Dr. Chace is Supervisor of Elementary Education in the Harwich, Chatham, Orleans, and Eastham (Mass.) Public Schools.



## RELIEF MAPS

The first relief map studied was of the natural regions of the United States. This map was compared with one showing where different groups of Indians had once lived. During a study of Indian life, different class committees reported on how the natural regions and climate affected life in certain sections. The reports stressed the fact that food, shelter, and clothing were dependent upon natural factors.

Since Cape Cod children are always conscious of the sea, the subject of ocean currents and their effect on the climate was of much interest to them. They discussed the depths of the ocean, the rise and fall of the land, the changing coastline, and lands that had risen from or sunk beneath the sea. The idea that islands were mountains sticking up out of the water greatly intrigued the youngsters. In the discussion of the sea and its coastline, relief maps were constantly introduced and became very real to the class.

## WEATHER MAPS

From discussions about the sea and its tides and currents, it was an easy matter to turn class interest toward the weather and weather maps. The group learned how rainfall was measured, how wind direction was determined, the meaning of growing seasons, and how to read barometers and thermometers. Equipment was set up and records were kept on temperature graphs and wind charts. The class attempted to predict weather and discussed high and low pressure areas and storm paths, working with weather maps to show the course a high wind or storm might follow. They compared maps showing amounts of rainfall with those showing forest areas and good crop areas and discussed the reasons for the similarity of these maps.

## ROUTE MAPS

In their study of the entire United States, the teacher suggested that the class collect route maps from as many of the states as possible. A fine collection was made. When one child came back from Florida with her parents, her father allowed her to plan the entire route from her maps. When the teacher planned to go to New York City, the class worked together to plan a route for her to follow. Although they were unable to find a route that would take her around the city of Providence, they did offer her two ways to go through Connecticut, and the carefully marked map that they finally handed her when she was ready to leave on her trip, was most helpful.

## HISTORICAL MAPS

While studying American history, the class worked with historical maps. A large map of the United States that could be washed and reused was placed on the wall. The routes of explorers could then be traced. Historical places could be located. A similar map of the world allowed the children to plot the sea voyages of early explorers. Although many of the maps were simply copied from those appearing in textbooks, the voyage of Columbus was plotted from the written account given by the monk, Las Casas in *The Journal of Columbus*. Although the teacher had been a little concerned that this might be too advanced for the group, the children seemed to enjoy the work, and many similar maps could be made from descriptions of other voyages and expeditions. "I like to have maps explain something that really happened," one boy remarked.

## THE GLOBE

One warm day the class went out to the playground and sat on a grassy bank while the teacher told them about the solar system. As the story progressed, the teacher gave each child a part to play. One boy was the sun, one the moon, and there were many stars and planets. Each child tried his or her part alone first, and then finally all the planets moved about their orbits and the satellites moved around the planets. It was a fine demonstration, although a few actors became a little dizzy. The class gained some feeling of the vastness of the universe and the place and development of the earth. They next discussed how the earth cooled and how the surface was formed. The names of continents, oceans, poles, equator, tropics, and zones of temperature were reviewed, and the youngsters learned to locate places by longitude and latitude.

In other studies of the globe the class compared its accuracy with that of flat map projections. The polar centered map was compared with Mercator projection and the children noticed that the polar map distorted the lands and waters at the periphery just as the Mercator did at the regions farthest from the equator. They agreed that each map could be used for a specific purpose, but that the globe was the only true representation of the world.

At the close of the sixth grade year the teachers conducting this experiment in grade placing of skill agreed that it was possible for a sixth grade group to develop the following skills to a rather high degree:

1. The use of map indexes in various references.
2. Interpretation of map scales and the ability to draw maps to scale.
3. The reading of symbols and keys on many types of maps.
4. Interpretation of the following types of maps: political; weather; relief; route; historical; and special types.
5. The filling in of outline maps from memory.
6. The ability to use a globe to determine distances, locate places, and compare time.
7. The use of various map projections.
8. The use of reference books.

## *A Project in Civic Education*

By PAUL FLANZER

*West Hempstead (N.Y.) Junior-Senior High School*

LAST year an attorney in our town noted with interest that annually our seniors go for a four-day tour to Washington, D. C. as part of our Problems of Democracy course. Expanding this idea, he formulated a plan which was submitted to our social studies supervisor, Donald Cosgrove, of following a hypothetical criminal or civil law case from start to conclusion using the Nassau County Seat at Mineola as our social studies laboratory. This idea was approved by the Board of Education and later received considerable attention from the local and New York City press.

The local attorney began the adventure by a visit to the classroom where he oriented the students to what they would see and hear. He then explained his function as a defense counsel and discussed some basic concepts of evidence and legal procedure.

On the following day, after careful arrangements had been made with police and court officials, we invaded the county seat and imagined ourselves in the role of law breakers apprehended by the police. A police guide led the group through the identification and finger printing bureau of police headquarters. The officers in charge of each division explained the function of their department in the apprehending of a criminal. The students were amazed by the precision and coordination of police activities and were fascinated by the crime laboratory, radio and teletype room, motor vehicle section and detective bureau.

The next step of our tour took us to the courts. Both the county judges and state justices were most cooperative. On one occasion when a dull corporation civil action was the only case on the calendar an off-duty judge donned his garb and invited the class into his empty courtroom which he had prepared for a mock trial.

Two lawyers agreed to act as defense and prosecuting attorneys while all the court functionaries took their places. A number of pupils were interviewed and a jury was selected from among them. Both lawyers invented a case as they went along and called student witnesses who enthusiastically went along with the role playing. The court stenographer took down all testimony and later demonstrated his stenotype machine. This was a learning experience which could not be equalled by any amount of time in the classroom.

In the county court all criminals found guilty during the week were brought before the court for sentencing on Friday morning. With permission from the county judges we experienced the emotional tension of watching criminals facing justice and noted with considerable interest how each sentence was passed on the basis of the crime, the past history of the criminal and extenuating factors.

A dramatic conclusion to this living experience in citizenship was the visit to the county jail where the warden explained the security system, the psychological problems of prison life and the place of the jail in the county legal system. He then took us through the locked gates and into the cell blocks, the laundry, the kitchen, canteen, waiting and visiting rooms, sewing shop and solitary isolation cells.

Back in the classroom we reviewed our adventure and discussed some of the finer points. The student's reactions were ecstatic. In addition to securing a knowledge of our legal system they were developing favorable attitudes toward our police and courts. Valuable also were the insights given to us through talks with the judges, district attorney, warden, court officials, police and lawyers. We at West Hempstead believe this to be a valuable and worthwhile educational project for our young people.

# A School-Community Citizenship Council

Nicholas Econopouly

THE idea grew slowly. Adults were concerned about "the teen-age problem." Students complained about a lack of understanding on the part of adults. The daily newspapers ran the usual items describing juvenile pranks and crimes. A parent complained publicly that money had been taken from his daughter's school locker.

A local psychologist spoke before the high school PTA. His theme: teen-age problems can be treated most effectively if the approach is made through the peer groups. It was becoming more and more necessary, he emphasized, that adults learn to work effectively with these teen-age groups.

A parent, immediately and intensely interested in what had been said, invited interested students, parents, and teachers to her home to discuss further the views aired at the meeting. Approximately a dozen persons attended. At the conclusion of several additional meetings a suggested outline of purposes, methods, and structure of an organization later called "The Levittown Memorial High School Student-Parent-Teacher Citizenship Council" had been drawn up. Two weeks later the student organization, the PTA, and the high school faculty and administration each unanimously approved the plan, pledged support, and elected representatives to the newly-formed group.

The Council has been meeting weekly for almost two years. Its list of accomplishments is impressive; it has also had its share of troubles.

## PURPOSES, METHODS, AND STRUCTURE

The structure of the Council has evolved gradually and painfully out of its stated purpose: to provide a meeting place for student, parent, and

teacher viewpoints, to establish a type of atmosphere which would encourage an appreciation for varying ideas, and to develop a process through which common areas of agreement could be reached. The assumption here, of course, is that there are mutual goals toward which all can work with vigor and enthusiasm; the task, through active study and discussion, is to determine or achieve these goals. The Council, then, must provide the atmosphere in which such a process may take place.

The group experimented briefly with parliamentary procedure. This proved less than adequate in achieving the stated purposes. Rigid lines of debate formed, and the group became hopelessly snarled in the technical complexities of the process. The Council then moved on to a process which is close to what has been described as "the Quaker approach." Briefly summarized, its procedure is as follows:

1. All viewpoints may be expressed at the meeting. Strong words, provocative language, and repetition are strictly forbidden. Each speaker addresses the group only after careful thought.
2. Issues are not debated; instead, different viewpoints are studied and common grounds of agreement are carefully sought. Each member speaks not only as an individual, but also as a member of a group which is trying to achieve understanding.
3. If argument should get somewhat heated, the issue is delayed until the situation is once again calm. Council members may decide that both cooler tempers and additional information are needed.
4. In the last eleven months the Council has been operating on the basis of unanimous opinion. Every decision in that period—and there have been many—has been endorsed by all members of the group.
5. Each member of the Council believes that agreement is desirable; he must, therefore, listen carefully and consider thoughtfully each comment made at the meeting. Inattentiveness and stubbornness are the Council's worst enemies. Thoughtfulness and willingness to see the other fellow's viewpoint are its most important essentials.

In periods of excessive stress the group has frequently reviewed the procedure, analyzed and evaluated what has taken place, and, if necessary, made what modifications were needed for more effective operation. A carefully evolved list of "Danger Signs" of potential difficulties in group

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In reply to a question from the editor, Mr. Econopouly wrote, "I am a member of the citizenship education department at Levittown Memorial High School in a system which has mushroomed from approximately 40 students to almost 10,000 in eight years."

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discussion have been drawn up. Members of the Council feel free to refer to this listing and to indicate troubles which may lie ahead.

In structure, the Council is loosely organized—and purposely so. The faculty has elected five of its members to the Council, four parents have been chosen by the PTA, and nine students represent the student organization. In actual practice, however, anyone who attends the meetings is a member of the Council and may participate in discussions. Discussion chairmen alternate between the three groups on a four-month basis.

#### ACTION THROUGH DISCUSSION

What happens once agreement has been reached in the Council?

The Council is not an action or pressure group in the usual meaning of those words. It recognizes that there are many groups within the school and in the community which are able to carry out effective action. The Council's task, then, is to discuss its views with these groups, seek the views of the principal, the director of recreation, the various school officials, and experts in the community, and out of this continued discussion evolve a plan or program. "We don't try to force anything down anyone's throat" has been its operating policy. Where the Council has followed carefully this approach, results have been most striking; in a few instances where it has wandered, it has courted disaster. The student organization, the office of the district recreation director, the various administrative officers, the subject departments, the PTA, and the faculty have all contributed resources needed for a broad program of action.

#### SOME RESULTS

What has the Council accomplished?

Perhaps most impressive is the evidence of remarkable growth of individual members of the group, particularly among the student participants. Repeatedly the shy and retiring youngster has come to the meetings, has been drawn into discussions, and, where the process has continued,

has developed considerable skill in working within a democratic framework. Several student members of the Council are at present leaders in the student body—and a number of extremely effective leaders are developing. Leadership training has been one of the Council's most valuable contributions.

There have been other results. The Council has sponsored a school-wide Citizenship Day, organized largely by the students themselves, which has considered student-posed questions and problems by means of discussions with community leaders, representatives of local colleges, and school officials. Through the efforts of the Council a teen-age evening recreation center has been established in the high school. The Council has also secured bus service to the center, although this was later abandoned because of insufficient response. Members of the Council have worked with the school citizenship education department in planning and establishing a community resource file. The group has discussed teen-age activities with a local newspaper editor; this has resulted in a more positive presentation of news about teen-agers. In addition, information has been sought and views have been exchanged on such matters as cafeteria procedure, use of the school parking field, student smoking, and summer recreation.

The Council has not had all smooth sailing—at times it has been able to continue largely because of the encouragement and support it has received from the school principal and others who have been interested in its aims. "We have disagreements," commented a former student chairman of the Council, "but we try to work them out by listening to the other fellow's viewpoint. It may take a little time, and sometimes we get a little annoyed, but in the end all of us—students, parents, and teachers—work out our disagreements and plan the next step. We find that it takes a lot of listening, a little talking, and plenty of give-and-take before we're all nodding our heads in agreement and moving into smoother water again."

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"The clock, not the steam engine, is the key machine of the modern industrial age. For every phase of its development the clock is both the outstanding fact and the typical symbol of the machine: even today no other machine is so ubiquitous. Here, at the very beginning of modern technics, appeared prophetically the accurate automatic machine. . . ." (From Lewis Mumford, "The Monastery and the Clock.")



# Alaska: A Radio Script

Tom Altenbernd

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## CAST

NARRATOR	JOE, THE FARMER
ALASKAN	GENERAL
PASSENGER	COLONEL
JED, THE PROSPECTOR	SERGEANT
BUSH PILOT	PRIVATE

## SOUND

THEME	TRACTOR
AIRPLANE	TRUCKS

*Narrator:* This is the Board of Education Station. The Division of Social Studies presents another broadcast in its sixth grade geography series, NEW HORIZONS IN GEOGRAPHY.

*(Music—Theme Up and Out)*

*Narrator:* Hello, boys and girls. (Pause three seconds.) Today we are going on a long flight north to the territory of Alaska. First, we'll locate Alaska on the map. Open your books to page —. (Pause five seconds.) Alaska is in the upper left hand corner of the map. Point to Alaska. (Pause five seconds.) To reach Alaska from Cleveland you would have to cross many rivers, lakes, and mountains, and cross most of Canada. Many people who go to Alaska from the United States fly there. So that's the way we'll start our trip. First, we would fly to Seattle, Washington. And there, we'd board another plane for Alaska.

*(Sound—Fade in airplane in background.)*

*Narrator:* This is Flight 516 from Seattle, Washington to Fairbanks, Alaska. (Fade.) One of the passengers who lives in Alaska is talking to the man in the next seat.

*(Sound—Airplane up—Establish and Under)*

*Alaskan:* So this is your first trip to Alaska.

*Passenger:* Yes. I wonder how soon we'll get there.

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Mr. Altenbernd is a radio writer and television producer for the Cleveland Public Schools. This script is one of a series of seventeen broadcast to the Cleveland elementary schools throughout the school year from WBOE, the Cleveland School FM radio station. The series of broadcasts, intended for sixth grade social studies classes, was written under the direction of the Cleveland Schools' Division of Social Studies.

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*Alaskan:* We're flying over Alaskan territory now—right down there to the left.

*Passenger:* Already?

*Alaskan:* Yes. Of course, that's just the southern end of the Panhandle. We'll fly another three hours before we get to Fairbanks.

*Passenger:* I didn't think Alaska was that big.

*Alaskan:* Big? Why flying from here to Fairbanks is, like flying from Cleveland to New Orleans. Alaska's about one-fifth the size of the 48 states.

*Passenger:* That's a lot of land to be going to waste.

*Alaskan:* Oh, it's not going to waste. You wait until you get into Alaska. You'll see what's being done.

*Passenger:* I don't see how much could be done with just a bunch of prospectors and Eskimos.

*Alaskan:* Well, I can see that you don't know much about Alaska. There are all kinds of people living there. One hundred twenty-eight thousand of them, according to the 1950 census. And the population has grown a lot since 1950.

*Passenger:* What do they do in such a cold country?

*Alaskan:* All kinds of jobs. You see, Alaska isn't all ice and snow. There are farms, air lines, trucking companies, and fisheries in Alaska as well as gold mines. When cities are built up and the roads improved, business will boom.

*Passenger:* But why does Alaska need so much business when there are so few people?

*Alaskan:* You don't seem to understand. Alaska is our frontier now. It's a very important frontier.

*Passenger:* It seems like a foolish waste to develop a frontier so far from home.

*Alaskan:* No place is far from home as long as we're building bigger and faster airplanes.

*Passenger:* I suppose you're right about that.

*Alaskan:* I know I'm right. Many people know it. That's why the air force built so many air bases up here during the last war.

*Passenger:* Alaska seems like an odd place for air bases.

*Alaskan:* Not at all. Take a good look at a globe of the world today. Tip the globe so that you're looking down at Alaska. Then you'll see that Alaska is right on the air routes between



many of the important cities of the world.

*Passenger:* Do many lines actually use these routes over Alaska?

*Alaskan:* Well, some commercial planes stop in Alaska on their way from the United States to the Philippines and Japan. For the past few years the air force has been experimenting with flights over the Arctic Circle. Already one European airline has started a trip over the Arctic Circle. They save a thousand miles on what used to be a six thousand mile trip.

*Passenger:* So Alaska is becoming an important stop for some of the long airplane flights.

*Alaskan:* Yes, but it's not a new idea. You know, Billy Mitchell was one of our greatest air force generals. Many years ago he said, "Alaska is the most central place in the world of aircraft. Whoever has Alaska, has the world."

*Passenger:* Billy Mitchell was right about so many things. I suppose he was right about that, too.

*Alaskan:* You'll see for yourself as you travel around. Flying is important within Alaska as well as between Alaska and other parts of the world.

*Passenger:* You seem to know a lot about flying.

*Alaskan:* Well yes, but flying isn't the only good way to travel in Alaska. But it's still mighty important. In Anchorage alone there are 250 private planes and 2000 pilots.

*(Sound—Plane engine up—Establish and out.)*

*Narrator:* (cue) Boys and girls, many people in the United States, like the man on the plane, think that Alaska is a very strange land. That's because they don't know much about Alaska. Many people have wrong ideas. We'll have to listen to more Alaskans to find out how people live and work in Alaska. Flight 516 has finished its trip from Seattle and has landed at the Fairbanks Airport. There is much activity at the airport. Let's listen and find out what kind of people fly into Fairbanks, and why they fly there. Right over here is an old gold prospector talking to his bush pilot. Bush pilots are the men who fly all over Alaska, wherever people want to go. They will fly wherever there are passengers or packages to be delivered or picked up.

*Bush Pilot:* (fade in) That was a short stop you made at the land office, Jed.

*Jed:* I didn't waste any time. Boy, I've been filing claims for gold mines for 45 years now. It doesn't take long to do it any more.

*Bush Pilot:* Are you ready to fly back to your gold claim?

*Jed:* Yes, I am.

*Bush Pilot:* Did you get your extra supplies?

*Jed:* I did, boy. Let's get going.

*Bush Pilot:* Oh, what's the hurry, Jed. Why, in the old days it would have taken many days by dog sled to get to that claim of yours. I can fly you there in three hours.

*Jed:* I know that, but I still don't want to stand around here talking. In the old days when I traveled by dog sled, it took weeks to travel to a claim. I never had a chance to find gold, file a claim, and work the diggings all in the same week. I'm going to get all the gold I can out of that creek before the summer's over.

*Bush Pilot:* All right, (fading) old timer, let's go.

*(Sound—Plane engine revs up and fades.)*

*Narrator:* There you heard about the difference between the old and the new ways of traveling. What used to be a long trip by dog sled for Jed, now takes him three hours in an airplane. Of course, that three-hour trip didn't end the bush pilot's work. He had to stop at the Matanuska Valley to pick up a farmer who had been operating a successful farm for 15 years.

*(Sound—Fade in tractor in background.)*

*Joe:* We didn't expect you here from Fairbanks so soon, Mr. Stone.

*Bush Pilot:* Oh, I didn't stop in Fairbanks very long, Joe, and I had a good tail wind all the way down here.

*Joe:* You'll have to wait until morning to go on to Anchorage, anyhow. Seth can't leave until we get all that barley into the barn.

*Bush Pilot:* That's all right with me. I've been flying for days. I need a little rest.

*Joe:* Let me show you our farm while you're waiting.

*Bush Pilot:* I'd like that.

*Joe:* These vegetable patches are some of the finest in the valley.

*Bush Pilot:* They certainly look wonderful.

*Joe:* We're all proud of the vegetables we grow here in the valley.

*Bush Pilot:* You should be. I've eaten some of the tomatoes that you sell in Anchorage. They must weigh two pounds apiece.

*Joe:* Many of them do weigh that much. Now look at those strawberries. Have you ever seen such berries?

*Bush Pilot:* Why, they're as big as plums!

*Joe:* They have a good flavor, too. Here. Try one.

*Bush Pilot:* Thank you. M-m-m-m. . . . Very

good. Even though I've lived in Alaska a long time, I'm surprised that plants grow so big around here. Why is it?

*Joe:* We have ideal growing conditions. You see, during the summer months, the sun shines as much as 20 hours a day.

*Bush Pilot:* And the plants grow as long as there's sunlight.

*Joe:* Yes. That's why we get such big plants in only four months of summer. Now take cabbage for example. Why, I had one last summer that weighed 30 pounds.

*Bush Pilot:* Thirty pounds! *(fade)* That must have been quite a cabbage.

*Narrator:* Well, boys and girls, you can be sure that Alaskans enjoy their fresh fruits and vegetables. Before they started farming in the low warm valleys, they had to have all their fresh fruits and vegetables shipped in from Canada and the States. These imported foods were very expensive. Of course, the Alaskans didn't eat many fresh fruits and vegetables then. And even now, the foods which aren't grown in Alaska are more plentiful there than they were years ago. Now not all imported foods come by boat. Some fresh foods are flown in. Much food is trucked in over the Alaska Highway—one of the newest links with the States. This highway stretches from the northern states through Canada and into Alaska. The building of the Alaska Highway is one of the exciting stories of our Alaskan frontier. It was built by the army in 1942, during World War II when our country was at war with Japan. This is how it began.

*General:* *(fade in)* Colonel, I'm sure you realize the importance of this highway we've planned.

*Colonel:* Yes, sir. Without it we'd have a hard time building the air bases we need to defend Alaska.

*General:* Since some of the Alaskan Islands are only a thousand miles from Japan we can't ignore the danger of a Japanese invasion.

*Colonel:* Why, if the Japanese ever got an air base in Alaska there isn't a city in the United States that would be safe.

*General:* That's why we must rush this job, Colonel. We need a highway to Alaska, and it must be finished in a year. It's up to your men to do the job. *(fade)* Of course, we'll give you five regiments of engineers and all the workers you need.

*Narrator:* Your book tells about the Alaska Highway. The army engineers finished the sixteen hundred miles of road in less than a year. The highway carried the trucks that built the air

bases. Alaska was made safe from Japanese invasion. For the past ten years since the end of World War II, the trucks and cars on the Alaska Highway have been carrying loads for peacetime use as well as for the defense of Alaska. The road has been changed and improved so much that even now the soldiers who are guarding the Alaskan frontier talk about the highway.

*(Sound—Series of trucks passing in the background.)*

*Sergeant:* Boy, look at those trucks roll!

*Private:* I'm glad to see it. It was 30 below zero the winter we moved in here. I thought we'd never be able to build a road.

*Sergeant:* Well, we did it all right. And the trucks and cars have been rolling through here faster every month.

*Private:* They surely have, Sarge. Five hundred trucks and cars last month. . . .

*Sergeant:* And almost a thousand this month.

*Private:* I wonder where they're all going?

*Sergeant:* I'll bet that one is going to Fairbanks.

*Private:* Yes, look at that load of steel.

*Sergeant:* Fairbanks must be getting another big building.

*Private:* When I see how the highway helps the people up here, I'm proud that I helped build it.

*Sergeant:* Me, too. And I like being here. I'd like to settle down on a little farm in one of those valleys. That's real living.

*Private:* Not for me. I want to go back to Mississippi where it's warm all the time.

*Sergeant:* Well, it does get cold up here, but there are wonderful opportunities. When I get my discharge, I'm going to get some of this new *(fade)* farmland where there's plenty of room to spread out.

*Narrator:* Well, that's what Alaska is like. Something different to everyone. A place to work, a place to visit, or a place to live for a lifetime. If you have found Alaska to be different from what you expected, you might like to tell your classmates what you learned today. I am sure that you know now that Alaska's business, transportation, and farming have been built by many pioneers. Remember the old prospector and his bush pilot? The farmer? The soldiers who built the highway?

*(Music—Theme)*

*Narrator:* NEW HORIZONS IN GEOGRAPHY has come to you from Your School Station.

# Charting Ninth Grade Social Studies

Jack Allen

**A** CURRICULUM no-man's land." That's what one specialist, a veteran educator who probably knows the public school curriculum in America as intimately as anyone, calls the social studies program in the ninth grade. "No-man's land" is, of course, soldier talk. It brings to mind warring groups and bloody conflict. It suggests two conflicting forces challenging for supremacy.

Applied to an educational situation, then, the phrase, like many efforts at colorful description, leaves something to be desired. We could hardly regard curriculum groups with differing philosophies as being at war with one another. Still some curriculum controversies seem a far cry from duels with cream puffs at twenty paces. One does not expect to find at the scenes of curriculum battles rivers running red with blood. There may be times, however, when the desire to crack the skull of a professional antagonist is sublimated only with considerable effort. Finally, the contesting forces in conflicts over curriculum patterns and content do not fit themselves neatly into two well-defined groups. The situation is more complex than that. The pressures, the choices, the conflicting views are many-sided, not simply two-sided. So, if the ninth grade social studies program be a no-man's land, then it is a land where many groups vie for ascendancy.

In the early years of the public high school movement in the United States the ninth grade was not the happy hunting ground that it was later to become. The Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association moved into this relatively virgin territory in 1899 with an unchallenged recommendation. To the Committee the proper study for Grade Nine was ancient history. In the words of this influential group, "The time has come when ancient history may be studied independently as an interesting, instinctive, and

valuable part of the history of the human race. Classical pupils need such a study, not to support their classical work, but to give them a wider and deeper knowledge of the life, thought, and character of the ancient world; and non-classical pupils need the work still more than the classical, for in this study they are likely to find their only opportunity of coming into contact with ancient ideas."<sup>1</sup>

Widespread acceptance of this and other recommendations of the Committee of Seven is familiar to any student of the social studies curriculum. A single illustration will suffice. By 1916 more than 85 percent of the high schools in the North Central Association were offering courses in ancient history.<sup>2</sup> While the evidence regarding grade placement is not precise, the general acceptance of the Committee's four-block plan by the North Central high schools would strongly suggest that the preponderance of ancient history offerings were at the ninth grade level.<sup>3</sup>

The hold of ancient history was not to go unchallenged, however. Professional educators, as well as social scientists from areas other than history, began to cast their eyes upon the scene. In 1915 the Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association issued its Bulletin No. 23; the subject, *The Teaching of Community Civics*. The next year this same committee issued Bulletin No. 28, entitled *The Social Studies in Secondary Education*. The latter bulletin contained specific recommendations for a social studies program at the junior and senior high school levels. For Grade Nine, in sharp contrast to the 1899 Committee of Seven's report, came the recommendation for the study of "civics, economic and vocational, and economic history." This and other recommendations of the Committee carried a solid punch. Within two decades after the issuance of the 1916 report Pro-

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The author, a professor of history at the George Peabody College for Teachers, and the newly elected Second Vice President of the National Council for the Social Studies, read this paper last November at the Council's annual meeting in New York.

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<sup>1</sup> The Committee of Seven, American Historical Association. *The Study of History in Schools*. New York: Macmillan, 1909. p. 54-55.

<sup>2</sup> Edgar B. Wesley. *Teaching the Social Studies*. New York: D. C. Heath, 1937. p. 94.

<sup>3</sup> See table in Rolla M. Tyron. *The Social Sciences as School Subjects*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1935. p. 182.

fessor Edgar Wesley was able to suggest that "perhaps the history of American education affords no other instance in which so unpretentious a booklet has wielded so great an influence upon the curriculum."<sup>4</sup> Thus, in 1916, two lines were clearly drawn at ninth grade social studies. Put baldly, it was ancient history in one camp and community civics in the other.

It is more than half a century now since the Committee of Seven issued its famous report and approximately 40 years since the influential statement of the Committee on the Social Studies. How have the two camps fared? Certainly the intervening years have witnessed countless other influences being brought to bear upon the social studies curriculum of the American secondary school. And these influences have frequently left their mark. As a consequence, the question posed is not one to which exact answers can be given. There are some answers, though, and they do suggest trends and influences.

Revealing data is provided by Howard Anderson in a study reported in 1949. His investigation in its broader context, was an inquiry into social studies offerings and registrations in public high schools during the school year 1946-47. For Grade Nine, 369 courses were examined. Of the total, Anderson determined that 45.1 percent fitted under the heading, "civics; citizenship." The closest rival was "world history" with 13 percent. There followed in order "state history" and "geography," both approximately 8 percent, and "social science" approximately 5 percent. The remaining courses, almost 19 percent were spread over a variety of areas.<sup>5</sup>

Two surveys of courses of study and curriculum guides by Meritt and Harap, published first in 1952 and again in 1955, confirmed this general pattern. Among the published guides and courses of study, "civics, or community living," held ascendancy in ninth grade social studies. Even so, these investigators did find such a varied collection of content areas as world geography, world history, ancient history, sociology, and state history.<sup>6</sup>

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 97. The impact of Bulletin, 1915, No. 23, on the content of civics courses is emphasized by Tyron. *Op. Cit.*, p. 313-315.

<sup>5</sup> Howard R. Anderson. *Teaching of United States History in Public High Schools*. Bulletin 1949, No. 7, Washington, D.C.: Federal Security Agency, p. 8.

<sup>6</sup> Eleanor Merritt and Henry Harap. *Trends in the Production of Teaching Guides, 1952; Trends in the Production of Curriculum Guides, 1955*. Nashville, Tennessee: Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers. (Additional data in mimeograph.)

More by way of illustration than proof is Curriculum Bulletin No. 6, *Social Studies for Young Adolescents*, published by the National Council for the Social Studies in 1951. Included in this publication are rather elaborate reports of selected social studies programs, Grades Seven to Nine, in five school systems. These five programs demonstrate, to a degree, the continuing mixed character of the ninth grade social studies curriculum. The content of one of the programs is clearly world history; another principally world geography, although beginning with a block devoted to personal orientation. The best that can be derived from the remaining three by way of a common denominator is a base of community content. Yet, only a scratch below the surface of this label reveals considerable variety in subject matter. Within the programs there crop up units on everything from local government, to vocations, to driver education.<sup>7</sup>

Yes, the ninth grade social studies curriculum remains a mixed-up business—not completely mixed, of course, but at least searching for direction and impetus. It is a little like the question that frequently comes from the familiar voice of one Jimmy Durante, "Did you ever have a feeling that you wanted to go but still had a feeling that you wanted to stay?" Perhaps it is not unfair to compare this curriculum dilemma with that of the adolescent which it seeks to serve. Some might even be inclined to try to establish a kind of relationship between the two problems.

Regardless of whether or not there does, in fact, exist any casual relationship between course and student (and it would be extremely difficult to prove), it is true that the typical ninth grader is searching for direction. He seems at one moment still wanting to feel the ties of mother's apron strings and yet the next to proclaim with vigor that "I am a man." He is inclined to think and act on the basis of past influences in the little world encompassed by his home, school, and neighborhood, but he has spread his horizons sufficiently to feel with growing conviction that the wide world all about him is really his oyster.

And here we may have a clue to better answers to the problem ninth grade. Our no-man's land, if we may call it that, is not empty terrain. It is a land filled with boys and girls. The winner, we hope, will not be history or geography or government or any other content per se. The victors should be the ninth graders themselves, each

<sup>7</sup> Julian C. Aldrich, editor. *Social Studies for Young Adolescents*. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1951.



gaining something that will make him a better democratic citizen than before. We are not looking for wars, then; we are in effect searching for means of peaceful compromise.

So, we come to the question: where do we go from here in the ninth grade social studies? In the search for answers, three fluid aspects of the problem have to be recognized immediately.

1. The so-called typical ninth grader is an elusive creature. Like students at other levels, the variations are wide. We shall not let this sidetrack us, however, for we do know a lot about a lot of ninth graders, and there are some useful common denominators to serve as guides.

2. The matter of curriculum scope and design is a conditioning factor at any grade level. It would seem especially so these days in the junior high school. But whether the social studies experiences of ninth grade boys and girls shall be ordered as separate subjects, as part of a block, as a relatively simple social studies-English core, or as a broadly-based core, this we shall ignore. One can assume that from the same spring board of content, good cases can be made for any of these types of organization.

3. The problem of curriculum sequence must necessarily affect any effort at grade placement. The ninth grade is no island. It is merely another stage in a continuous flow of human experience. It must necessarily be conditioned by what has gone on before and what presumably will come.

Having given due recognition to three complicating factors, we now move finally into the matter of content. No brief is made for what would appear today to be majority practice in ninth grade social studies. If, however, the majority of programs can be labeled community-centered with a strong citizenship emphasis, then the opinion here would be that these are headed in the right direction. There would have to be this reservation, however: many such programs, while on the right road, still have a lot of traveling to do. This becomes particularly apparent as one observes ninth grades in actual operation in schools the nation over.

Give the ninth grade social studies any name you like, organize the material in any manner you choose, the basic purpose remains the same, to help the young adolescent understand and appreciate, likely for the first time in his school experience, the many-sided character of good democratic citizenship.

To build toward such a goal, it seems entirely appropriate to begin with the adolescent himself. "Educating for American Citizenship," the

Thirty-second Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators tells us, "begins with a sensitive concern for the basic human emotional needs of each individual pupil."<sup>8</sup> The best prospect for good citizenship is the well-adjusted individual, the person without a chip on his shoulder. But even as the young citizen is helped to learn more of himself, more of the true character of his personality, he must ever see this in relationship to the culture about him. He must see his own personal motivations as they are circumscribed by the rules which society has created to regulate many of his activities. And at this stage of growth, he needs to see them as they relate to social institutions close at hand—the family, the school, and the larger community.

Having provided experiences designed to help the ninth grader understand himself better as a personality and see himself in relation to the culture of which he is immediately a part, we are now ready to move into the next stage of his education as a citizen. The primacy of emphasis at this point is clear. Its keynote is liberty, political freedom. All other freedoms, social and economic, are necessarily secondary to this. Without a political structure in which liberty is the guiding ideal, there can be little hope for the things we call social and economic democracy. Much more specifically than at any time in his previous educational experience, the young citizen needs to see himself cast in a political role. He needs to understand the nature of his political rights. He is likewise asked to think more specifically than before about himself as a responsible citizen in his many relationships with government. Rights, yes; but also the eternal vigilance that is the price of liberty.

Once the nature and framework of our democratic political order has been constructed, the student is in a position to examine the social and economic relationships which fashion so much of the personality of our communities and our nation. We Americans seem to have a genius for creating groups. We establish new ones at the slightest provocation. There are large groups and small ones. Some operate formally; others are quite informal. We organize them for purposes of education, religion, recreation, aesthetic satisfaction, health, safety, security. We create them for purposes of supplying goods and services—in the factories, on the farms, in offices, on the

(Concluded on page 72)

<sup>8</sup> American Association of School Administrations. *Educating for American Citizenship*. Thirty-Second Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1954. p. 2.



# Open-Mindedness

Samuel H. Jones

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Good sense is, of all things among men, the most equally distributed; for everyone thinks himself so abundantly provided with it that those even who are most difficult to satisfy in everything else do not usually desire a larger measure of this quality than they already possess.

—DESCARTES

EVERYONE has a sense that somehow his views on almost anything whatever, from the current notions about the origin of the universe to the propriety of attending Sunday School, are at least the equal of any other, and maybe a little bit superior. The way in which public school children possess knowledge—or alleged knowledge—is no exception. Each youngster comes to class deeply persuaded of the accuracy of his knowledge, and the unlimited worth of his views on anything. He *knows* who should be president of the United States, what political party every right-thinking, decent, loyal American will belong to, and what religious faith can open the gates to eternal glory. He *already possesses all the right answers to all the most important questions that have confounded the mind of man*. These right answers are already a part of his mental and emotional equipment when he arrives at school. That he is surrounded on this terrestrial globe by some two billion other human beings who may hold altogether different views, and who sometimes fight and die for such different views, hardly ever makes him wonder about or question his own beliefs.

The child is complacent in the fullness of his knowledge—or ignorance. It is this certainty of knowledge which is the arch-enemy of intellectual curiosity. The step from assured knowledge which is fixed in the bedrock of the universe to the mental state of doubt, or wonder, or curiosity requires but an instant of time but an infinity of careful effort on the teacher's part. How can the teacher convert his students from sleepy omniscience to active, persistent curiosity—the will to learn?

Children, like adults, are most provoked to learn when two of their established beliefs come into sharp conflict. Conflicting beliefs, each of

which seem to share about equally in the quality of being true at the outset, lose some of their appearance of being true and become *ideas* each of which is a candidate for acceptance and belief. Johnny may announce with great solemnity that "He who hesitates is lost," but his impassiveness may be greatly disturbed when opposing maxims are called to his attention, as, for example, "Look before you leap," or "Haste makes waste." Johnny might begin to wonder what the truth is. Many youngsters grow into adulthood without cultivating the habit of open-mindedness, that is the willingness to examine a belief or supposed form of knowledge by setting it alongside the other furniture of the mind to see whether it makes sense in the total picture. Instead, many grow up believing that "Opposites attract," and that "Birds of a feather flock together," or that "We must not judge by appearances," and "Where there is smoke there is fire."

Similarly, in school classrooms students "read over" their material which tells them that "free competition is the mainspring of our economic life and must be maintained by continuous intervention of national, state, and local government."<sup>1</sup> Opportunities to provoke students' curiosity and to cultivate an attitude of open-mindedness may be lost in the process of receiving knowledge uncritically as if through osmosis. Youngsters who have learned to regard a new item of knowledge as a candidate for belief will likely be less naive in the face of such conflicting pieces of information or belief.

The content of the social sciences is loaded with instances of conflicting items of information or belief. Students might be stimulated to wonder how a reputable historian could write that the United States was a prosperous nation on the eve of the War of 1812, and then, two paragraphs further on, that the United States was

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<sup>1</sup>Harold Fawcett and Alan Criffin, "The Cultural Transmission Basis." *The School Executive*, 70:62-3; May 1951.

economically unable to fight a war. Or, why would Disraeli fight hard against the extension of the suffrage in England, and then, on becoming prime minister, push through the very same legislative measures that he had so vigorously opposed. Or, why should England successfully wage war against Spain, 1702-13, in order to keep the Spanish throne free from Bourbon occupancy and then permit Philip, the grandson of Louis XIV, a Bourbon, to occupy the Spanish throne according to the terms of the treaty of peace. The Children's Crusade seems rather anomalous to an alert mind. Does it seem reasonable that Christian parents would send their beloved children on a mass pilgrimage across Europe, to perish of hunger, toil, hardship, disease, or finally on the curved swords of cruel Turks?

Why would an old autocrat like Bismarck institute a social security program, or a dictator like Napoleon carry the republican principles of the French Revolution throughout Europe? Any competent social scientist can go on to cite the bits of ostensible nonsense by the dozen.

The writer believes that these conflicts in content, once they are artfully brought to the attention of students, may be used to provoke thought and to encourage youngsters in more wholesome attitudes of wonder and curiosity to replace the paralyzing force of unwarranted belief. Bertrand Russell states the whole matter powerfully:

Dogmatism and skepticism are both, in a sense, absolute philosophies; one is certain of knowing, the other of not knowing. What philosophy should dissipate is *certainly*, whether of knowledge or of ignorance.

### CHARTING NINTH GRADE SOCIAL STUDIES

(Continued from page 70)

thoroughfares. The young citizen needs to know more about his fellow Americans, how our differing backgrounds and interests take us into varied aspects of human living.

Learning the *what* and *why* of our group culture leaves the lesson incomplete, however. The young citizen needs also to learn the *know-how* of group work, how to achieve the most for himself and for society as a group member. Furthermore, he needs to add to his store of values so that he may be able better to discriminate between good and bad groups.

Now to the final stage in the ninth-grader's program. Logic suggests it. Happily, it is likewise a direct response to the needs and interest of young adolescents. Planning for the future—this is the theme. True, earlier phases of the course include emphasis on the enlarging responsibilities of citizenship. Here, additionally, the citizenship picture is completed by having the student view the future in terms of his own vocational competency.

Finding the right job, the proper niche in the world of work, is a basic ingredient in the making of a well-rounded adult citizen. It is a problem about which boys and girls at this age level tend to exhibit a great deal of interest and concern.

For ninth-graders, the approach to vocational planning should be one of self-analysis. The time has come in the life of the young adolescent when he should begin to think about how his particular abilities, aptitudes, and interests fit into certain types of occupations. It is a little early for most of this group to center a great deal of attention on specific jobs. But it is time, at least, for these teen-agers to think about themselves and how they can best channel their economic futures.

Trying to find ways to help any group of American boys and girls build happier, more useful lives is always a compelling challenge. The ninth grade social studies program is merely one of many places where such opportunities exist. These are opportunities that we cannot afford to underestimate, however. Here we encounter young adolescents at an important time in their lives. Theirs is a search for direction. Let us, as social studies teachers, assist in this endeavor, not with a blind commitment to some body of "sacred" content, but rather with a spirit of flexibility and good will embodied in the desire to do something worth while for those upon whom so much of the future of our democratic society rests.

# George Washington: Hero of Two Worlds

Albert Alexander

TODAY the memory of George Washington is sacred to all Americans, but it was the French who immortalized him even earlier than his own countrymen, as "the wisest of heroes and the most heroic of wise men."<sup>1</sup> Like all people who have created a myth, they hoped it would benefit them. France, the oldest of countries, yet the newest of governments, saw our First President as the "grand man of humanity"<sup>2</sup> whose noble qualities their own leaders needed if they were to restore a measure of the stability France had known before 1789. They saw Washington as the political chemist who had successfully blended the newer and quixotic elements of liberty and equality with the older and baser material, order.

Strangely enough, this veneration, which lasted from the Old Regime through the reign of Louis Napoleon, was almost devoid of adverse criticism. In fact, so strong was this apotheosis that Lewis Cass, our minister to France in the 1840's, complained that Europe had assigned too great a part to Washington and too small a role to the people of the United States.<sup>3</sup> Possibly Cass was also striking out at the older nation's snobbishness in settling its debt on one man!

Save for the partisan and vitriolic attacks of Genêt and Adet during the period of estranged relations in the Adams administration, French comment on Washington from all sources is most lavish in its praise.<sup>4</sup> A minor fault, however, caught the eye of Alfred de Vigny. Frenchman and poet, he could not fail to speak of the "coldness" of Washington in history, and in life, he adds, he was also coldly loved.<sup>5</sup> Tocqueville, however, usually reticent in discussing personalities, unhesitatingly placed him at the "head of our species."<sup>6</sup>

With an eye, or possibly two, on their own

events and leaders, French writers referred to Washington's "moderation," "wisdom," and "judgment."<sup>7</sup> His "touching simplicity" seemed to strike the right pose of dignity for the leader who was not a king.<sup>8</sup> Who else, other than the conqueror, Napoleon, could the author Barbé-Marbois have had in mind when he extolled the man who, after defeating his enemies, did not have to "combat his own ambitions"?<sup>9</sup> Tocqueville was even more pointed in his comment on Napoleon III: "He is essentially a *Prince*, the role of Washington would have no charm for him."<sup>10</sup> Irrked by what he considered "calumny," Napoleon III confided to Victor Hugo in 1848 that he did not want to be a "guilty-hero" like his uncle, but a "good citizen" like Washington.<sup>11</sup>

To many Frenchmen, Washington seemed to be the very embodiment of their ideal of Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity. His monument was the "happiness of mankind," proclaimed Barbé-

<sup>1</sup> Duc de Broglie. *Souvenirs 1785-1870*. Paris, 1886. Vol. II. p. 420; *Personal Recollections 1785-1820*. London, 1887. Vol. II. p. 133.

<sup>2</sup> *Op. cit.*, *Souvenirs*, p. 421.

<sup>3</sup> Lewis Cass. *France, Its King, Court, and Government*. 3rd Ed. New York, 1848. p. 27.

<sup>4</sup> Gilbert Chinard, ed., *George Washington—As the French Knew Him*. Princeton University Press, 1940. p. xvi; Richard Rush. *Occasional Productions, etc.* New York, 1850. p. 309.

<sup>5</sup> Alfred de Vigny. *Journal d'un Poète*. Paris, 1867. p. 81.

<sup>6</sup> Alexis de Tocqueville. *Oeuvres Complètes*. Paris, 1866. Vol. VI. p. 437.

<sup>7</sup> Baron de Montlezun. *Voyage . . . 1816-1817*. Paris, 1818. Vol. I. p. 43; François Barbé-Marbois. *The History of Louisiana*. Philadelphia, 1830. p. 25.

<sup>8</sup> Charles Ogé Barbaroux. *Résumé de l'histoire des États-Unis d'Amérique*. 2nd Ed. Paris, 1824. p. 295, called the "finest character of modern times." Anacharais Brisot de Warville. *Voyage Au Guazacoalcos, etc.* Paris, 1837. p. 351; François Rene de Chateaubriand. *Mémoires d'Outre-Tombe*. Paris, 1899. Vol. I. p. 360.

<sup>9</sup> Barbé-Marbois, *op. cit.*, p. 25; F.A.M.A. Mignet, *Éloge Historique de M. Livingston*. Paris, 1838. p. 8. This noted French historian particularly admired him for not abusing his power.

<sup>10</sup> Alexis de Tocqueville. *Recollections*. New York, 1896. p. 138.

<sup>11</sup> Matthew Josephson. *Victor Hugo*. p. 294.

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Marbois.<sup>12</sup> Lafayette, of course, sent the key to the Bastille to Washington.<sup>13</sup> He was repeatedly praised as an executive who knew how to establish liberty in his own country.<sup>14</sup> Here the French, keenly aware of their own extremes in charting liberty's course, saw Washington with his "disinterestedness," "capacity," and "energy" as a superb helmsman.<sup>15</sup>

Again, Washington as a leader of the new democracy was admired for his resistance to the "exaggeration of popular opinion."<sup>16</sup> Guizot, who edited the French edition of Spark's *Life of Washington* together with selected portions of his writings, saw his views as "full of valuable instruction."<sup>17</sup> Most valuable of all, of course, were the instructions which coincided with Guizot's own philosophy! This learned cabinet minister, historian, political scientist, and most ardent champion of the middle class proudly referred to his administration as the "juste milieu." Washington, Guizot pointedly noted, also referred to his own policy of avoiding personal disputes, realizing differences of opinion without recrimination, and maintaining personal inde-

pendence, as the "just medium."<sup>18</sup> It is this example of moderation that France sorely needed, and no one saw France's needs more clearly than Guizot: "In our epoch of transformation and transition we are [attacked] by many social and moral diseases."<sup>19</sup>

In a simpler vein, Guizot's monarch, Louis Philippe, who had spent four days at Mount Vernon during the 1790's, cherished all his life an itinerary and a map of the United States marked out in red ink by Washington.<sup>20</sup>

Admired as a tactician, Washington was even more a model to the French (who had known only professional armies) as the "embodiment of the citizen-soldier," the organizer of an army of citizens.<sup>21</sup>

Of course 1955 does not find George Washington as revered by Frenchmen as he was, for example, in 1791, when the four-act tragedy, "Washington, ou la Liberté du Nouveau Monde," was first produced in Paris. It is, however, only two years removed from the two-hundredth anniversary of Lafayette's birth. Since Lafayette's name in France nearly always summons thought of Washington, it is conceivable that his fame will be concomitantly revived in the Fourth Republic.

<sup>12</sup> Barbé-Marbois, *op. cit.*, p. 25.

<sup>13</sup> Lewis Rosenthal, *America and France*. New York, 1882, p. 178.

<sup>14</sup> Achille Murat, *A Moral and Political Sketch of the United States*. . . London, 1833, p. xxx.

<sup>15</sup> Auguste de Morineau, *Essai Statistique et Politique sur les États-Unis*. Paris, 1848, p. 8.

<sup>16</sup> Tocqueville, *Ouvres*. Vol. II, p. 299.

<sup>17</sup> F. P. G. Guizot, *Washington*. p. xi.

<sup>18</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 109-110.

<sup>19</sup> F. P. G. Guizot, *Memoirs to Illustrate the History of My Time*. London, 1859, Vol. IV, p. 318.

<sup>20</sup> C. P. Cambiari, *Louis Philippe in 18th Century America*. (Pam.) New York, 1945, p. 8-9.

<sup>21</sup> Chinard, *op. cit.*, p. x; Chateaubriand, *op. cit.* Vol. I, p. 359-361.

## Sidelights

Young Thomas L. Shippen, son of Dr. William Shippen, Jr., of Philadelphia, was one of the many young men whom Jefferson was asked to introduce to the splendors of Paris and French society. In a long letter written to his father at various intervals during February and March, 1788, young Shippen had this to say about the appearance of Thomas Jefferson at the Court of Louis XVI:

"I observed that although Mr. Jefferson was the plainest man in the room, and the most desti-

tute of ribbands, crosses and other insignia of rank that he was most courted and most attended to (even by the Courtiers themselves) of the whole Diplomatic corps—The king is bound up by etiquette to distribute his monosyllables among those of *Ambassadorial* rank—consequently he was an exception." (From the *Papers of Thomas Jefferson*, Vol. 12, p. 504. Edited by Julian P. Boyd. Princeton University Press, 1955. Contributed by Ralph A. Brown, State Teachers College, Cortland, New York.)



# The Philippines

George Ackerlund

THE Philippines includes more than 7,000 islands with a total population of about 20,000,000 people. Volcanic in origin, it contains many mountains, especially in the north. Prior to its independence in 1946 it was referred to as The Philippine Islands, but at that time it officially became Philippines because of its more unitary character.

The people of the Philippines have a keen interest in education. This fact gives great hope that the Philippines will become a potent force in Southeast Asia and throughout the world.

One of the very obvious characteristics of Filipinos is their hospitality. They always have time to visit. Their meriendas with lechon (roast whole pig) is a rare treat much discussed among American guests.

Americans in the Philippines often say, "Never admire anything in the home of a Filipino or it will be yours." This has been somewhat embarrassing to Americans who customarily admire objects in the homes of friends, but refusing to accept gifts from Filipinos is a social error.

Unfortunately, some Filipinos seem to feel inferior to Americans. One graduate student told the author that Americans were more intelligent than Filipinos. This is not true. Those Filipinos who have the advantages which exist in the United States equal Americans or any other people in accomplishment.

## FOREIGN AID

The Foreign Operations Administration of the United States is doing much to assist the government of the Philippines in its efforts to rebuild its war-torn country and to establish a sound and healthy economy. The FOA office in Manila works closely with the various agencies of government supplying technical assistance and financial

aid. Much is being done in irrigation, job classification, vocational education, and other areas of activity. Perhaps the greatest work is being done through what is termed the "contract method." The United States Government holds contracts with various universities in America which in turn carry on certain types of work in foreign countries. Stanford University has a team of eight working in the fields of education, engineering, and business administration. Cornell University has a similar contract in agriculture. The University of Michigan has a team in Public Administration. Johns Hopkins is represented in the field of Public Health on another program, and recently the University of Connecticut also began work at the University of the Philippines.

Many people have asked if the foreign aid program is bringing results commensurate with money spent. Answers are, of course, open to opinion, but it is this writer's opinion that so far as the Philippines is concerned results seem clearly to justify expenditures. The cost is relatively high because of distances and conditions under which the programs are carried on, but if the work can continue for the next ten years considerable transformation will surely result throughout the country.

## COMMUNITY SCHOOLS

Since World War II many educators have been observing with much interest the growth of the Community School program in the Philippines. This program is perhaps doing more to improve social and economic conditions in the Philippines than any other single effort. It is building a grass-roots democracy which deserves much more attention and credit than it has so far received.

A recent publication of the Bureau of Public Schools lists the following over-all objective of the Community School Program: "Improvement of community life through mutual cooperation and assistance between the school and community." Under this broad objective are the following specific goals:

1. Education of both young and the adult for social competence.
2. Improvement of local conditions through adaptation of curricular subjects to community needs and problems.

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3. Preparation of individuals for economic self-sufficiency.
4. Elevation of the people's standard of living.
5. Development of a healthy public opinion.
6. Development of right attitudes.

The spirit of democracy is evident most everywhere in the Philippines and the Purok idea has given great impetus to its growth. Each community is divided into sections called Puroks. Each Purok consists of about 12 (more or less) families. Each has its own organization and meeting place. Some of these small buildings have plaques over the door reading, "For the expression of ideas and feelings." Here people of the Purok meet and discuss problems of common concern. In its early stages at least, teachers accepted leading roles in getting the Purok idea into practice. Small primitive buildings called "Reading Centers" are also built in which are placed such reading materials as are available. One cannot travel from one community to another without becoming enthusiastic over the growth of democracy and the spirit of self-help in the Philippines.

Physical improvement of the community is one of the most obvious results of the Community School program. Where the program has taken root the school site is the beauty spot of the entire community.

One of the leading Community School programs is carried on in the Province of Laguna. Its author, Superintendent Ramon Lorenzo labels it the "Laguna Approach." Fellow superintendents have labeled him "Mr. Laguna Approach!" Characteristic of this program are outdoor classes. Classes are rotated so that no class is held outside more than about once each month. Adults of the community attend these outdoor classes and participate as they wish. All such classes are conducted in the vernacular rather than in English because most people are more conversant in their native dialect than in English.

English is the language of instruction except in some cases where the vernacular or local dialect is used in the first two grades. The Philippines is plagued with at least 87 dialects. One of these, Tagalog, has been adopted as the national language, and this caused considerable jealousy among other dialect groups. The language problem never fails to receive considerable discussion at meetings of educators.

The Community School program has done much to encourage diversity in food raising. A visit to the Province of Pangasinan revealed fine flocks of poultry, piggery, mushroom culture,

varieties of vegetables, the introduction of some dairy cattle, and, of course, Tilapia ponds. (Tilapia is an extremely prolific fish. Many people are building Tilapia ponds in their yards as a source of food.)

#### THE UNIVERSITY OF THE PHILIPPINES

The University of the Philippines can be termed a national university. It receives an appropriation from the Congress of the Philippines, and the Secretary of Education in the President's Cabinet is Chairman of the Board of Regents. The University has built a fine reputation over the years. Its graduates hold many of the highest positions in the country. Its enrollment is now about 14,000. This figure includes students at the College of Agriculture at Los Baños, which is located about 50 miles from the main campus. The College of Medicine and the College of Dentistry are both in Manila where the University was located prior to World War II.

Just before the outbreak of the war the University had built two new buildings on its present location. These were the College of Education and the College of Law. The College of Education became the headquarters for the Japanese Forces during their occupation of the country, and considerable damage was inflicted to the building during that period. When the American Forces invaded the Philippines the University area likewise became its headquarters. Many barracks were built as well as many officers' quarters. It was said that the total value of construction amounted to approximately \$16,000,000. These buildings were later given to the University. Some of the barracks are now being used as dormitories and others have been partitioned into living quarters for the faculty members. A sufficient number of the better cottages have been reserved by the University for FOA and other American personnel, an example of the kindness and hospitality of the Filipino. All of these buildings, however, are of temporary construction. Some now used for dormitories would not even be considered for such purposes in this country. One morning a young lady student returned a borrowed book and apologized because a rat had gotten into her dormitory room and had gnawed one corner of the book—but she continued to live there!

Since the war considerable building has taken place. The college of Liberal Arts is a beautiful modern white structure which, unfortunately, is not so functional as it could have been. New also are an administration building, a library

which would be the envy of almost any college or university in the United States, an Engineering building which is without doubt the finest in all Southeast Asia, and a Veterinary building.

The University has far to go to equal leading universities in this country, but if present progress continues it is well within possibility that within ten years the University of the Philippines will have an enrollment of 20,000 to 25,000 students and will be the undisputed seat of higher learning throughout Southeast Asia and perhaps all of Asia. There is already evidence that the people of Southeast Asian countries are looking to the Philippines for educational opportunities.

One of the greatest avenues through which the United States could influence the peoples of Southeast Asia and win them to the cause of freedom and democracy would be through a greater and continued contribution to the University of the Philippines. United States financed scholarships could be given to students from Asian countries for attendance at the University of the Philippines. Attendance at a first rate university in a country similar to their own has many advantages over coming to the United States for higher education.

As in some cases in the United States, "politics" has interfered too much in University affairs, yet it is surprising that the University has not been troubled more than it has since it is so closely related to the National Government. President Tan of the University has done much to oppose political pressure by making known his strong principle that the University and politics should not mix. Very encouraging also was a statement by President Magsaysay during an effort to remove President Tan. At that time President Magsaysay stated that "The University of the Philippines must be kept above politics." President Tan remained and the criticism subsided, although it is quite certain to re-occur.

#### PUBLIC AND PRIVATE EDUCATION

Public education in the Philippines is highly centralized, although there are signs of a trend toward some decentralization. Under the Department of Education in the President's Cabinet are a Bureau of Public Schools and a Bureau of Private Schools. Teachers are under Civil Service, and all are appointed and assigned by the Bureau of Public Schools. There are approximately 110 superintendents and assistant superintendents who likewise are assigned to their positions by the Bureau of Public Schools. There are no school boards, although there is much discussion

about the possibility and advisability of some type of school board in local communities. This will likely be a future step taken by the Community School programs.

One of the difficult problems is the continuing rivalry between parochial and public schools. This is inevitable in a country where approximately 78 percent of the people belong to the Roman Catholic Church.

But perhaps the most serious problem facing educators is the rapid growth of the so-called "Diploma Mills." Most of the approximately 1,000 colleges and universities in the country are small and have little regard for academic standards. It has been said that 95 percent of the private schools, excluding of course the parochial schools, are operated for profit. Physical facilities of many of these schools are extremely poor, and books and materials, of learning are in many cases almost non-existent. The Bureau of Private Schools is now attempting to remedy this condition, but politics and the lucrative profits from such schools make change very difficult. One former Director of the Bureau of Private Schools was assaulted and beaten for attempting to close the worst of the "Diploma Mills." He was later removed from office for inactivity in dealing with them. The situation will surely be corrected, for many Philippine educators are concerned about this situation.

#### CONCLUSIONS

Filipinos are not looking for handouts from the United States. They appreciate with great sincerity the aid given, but are also fully aware that they must make great sacrifices of their own if they expect to achieve the goals they have set for themselves.

No attempt is made to uproot the Philippine social structure. On the contrary, Americans are making every effort to work cooperatively with Philippine leaders to improve conditions within the pattern of Philippine culture. Continued aid to the Philippines is important. It will without question have a great bearing on the fight against Communism in that part of the world. It undoubtedly has already had a significant influence. We must share our good fortunes and progress with those areas which for one reason or another are delayed in progress. There can be little doubt but what continued assistance, both material and technical, to these charming hospitable, and freedom-loving people, the Filipinos, is wise and will bring gratifying returns to the United States and the entire free world in the years ahead.

# What Other Journals Are Saying

Harris L. Dante

## USING GEOGRAPHY TO UNDERSTAND THE COMMUNITY

(From an article, "Opening Doors. . . Through Geography." By Clyde F. Kohn. Reprinted from THE COUNCILLOR [September 1955], a publication of the Illinois Council for the Social Studies.)

Recently a fourth grade in Wilmington, Delaware, developed a unit of work around the idea: "How does a river affect a community such as ours?" As this study took hold, finding out everything possible about the Delaware River became absorbing to the children. Many of them lived near the river. Many of them had traveled on the river to Philadelphia. Many knew that it had become polluted. In the course of the unit, the class learned that people settled where their basic needs are met; that people adjust to their environment; that people can bring about change in their environment, both physical and social, constructive and destructive; that people are dependent on each other; that water influences all living things; that waterways provide means of meeting many of man's basic needs; that people work and use the world's resources to satisfy their basic needs; that people in Wilmington are dependent on people in other parts of the world. They learned that without the river there would be no Wilmington as it now exists; that the bridge over the river is changing the city; that the river produces power, transportation, good farms, and good jobs; that because of the river Wilmington is able to be an industrial town. They also learned how the river has been misused and is now polluted.

Also, recently, in a high school class, several students became much interested in India. They had followed world happenings on the television and radio. They discussed the news with each other as the class met one morning. They raised this interesting question: "Why does that what takes place in India affect the lives of Americans?" After discussing this for a few minutes, the class decided that it would have to have much more information about India and its people in order to find a suitable answer. They made a list of questions they would like to have answered. Among them were these:

1. Is it true that many people of India never have enough to eat? Why?
2. What are the religious beliefs of Indian people?
3. What educational advantages do Indians have?
4. What is the Indian form of government?
5. In what kind of homes do Indian people live? What do they eat?
6. How do Indians travel about their country?
7. What kind of work do Indians do for a living?
8. How is India affected by its location in southern Asia?
9. In what ways is India related to the USSR? To China? To the USA?

The students acquired many learnings from their study. They began to think of India as a country of many people, rather than as a spot on the map. They became acquainted with these people, how they dressed, what they ate and what they wore, how they felt about other peoples. They learned that when people are hungry, unlearned, sick and afraid, they are likely to have a kindly feeling toward those who help them overcome these difficulties. They began to sense a moral obligation of the more fortunate toward those less fortunate. They gained an appreciation of how rapidly the world is changing. They acquired an increased interest in the affairs of Asia. They realized India's strength as a leader among the nations of the world. They became concerned about the future of India—whether she would remain a free, democratic nation or fall under the domination of communism. They learned about the problems that must be solved in developing the land for agriculture.

## Conclusions Regarding the Role of Geography in the Social Development of Children

From the two examples cited above, it can be seen that the study of geography contributes to the objectives of the social studies program in a number of ways:

1. It helps to create accurate visual images of various parts of the earth.
2. It helps children and young people see the

relations of man to his physical setting.

3. It helps children think wisely about political, social, and economic conditions in a complex world, and in this way fosters intergroup and international understanding.
4. It helps children understand how man lives within his own immediate environment, his local community, his state and region, his nation, and in other nations and regions throughout the world.
5. It helps children recognize the interdependence of people throughout the world.
6. It helps children understand the meaning and significance of conservation, of both natural and human resources.
7. Finally, it helps children understand the things they see. In this way it provides for the enrichment of leisure time. All too few realize that the subject makes a very valuable contribution toward this aspect of living. The study of geography has a recreational value which must not be minimized.

It should be pointed out that where geography fails to make these contributions, the fault is not in the subject itself, but in the methods of teaching it. In those schools where reading materials suited to the reading ability and interests of children, including children's literature, are used; where visual aids are readily available and expertly used; and where field studies are provided—experiences drawn from the "geographic laboratory" are interesting to children and do help them grow toward social maturity.

A.T.S.S. LOOKS AT THE REGENTS EXAMINATION<sup>1</sup>  
(Arthur I. Bernstein, President, in A.T.S.S. BULLETIN for September and November, 1955.)

The executive board of the Association of Teachers of Social Studies in the City of New York has expressed dissatisfaction with the recent Regents Examination in American History and World Backgrounds and set up a committee to study the examination and make helpful suggestions. They have explained to the Board of Education that "the examination in question constituted a defective instrument of evaluation because of undue emphasis in insignificant detail, inadequate sampling of important items in the course of study and syllabi and, in some instances, ambiguity or lack of clarity in the wording of questions."

<sup>1</sup> Social studies groups in other states could no doubt profitably take a look at various state and county examinations, every pupil tests, scholarship examinations, and so forth.—Editor.

The committee under Joseph Sher has made an analysis "of the errors of omission and commission together with recommendations and appropriate illustrations for improving future examinations" as a preliminary report.

#### DEVELOPING CONCEPTS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

(From an article, "Developing Concepts in the Social Studies." By H. Taylor Morse. Reprinted from the IOWA COUNCILOR [October 1955].)

Types of learning in the social studies have been variously classified by those fond of categorizing. One useful classification is to consider learnings in four general areas: (1) facts, (2) understandings or basic concepts, (3) skills or abilities (including critical thinking which is receiving increasing emphasis and deservedly so), and (4) attitudes and interests. Ideally, these form a hierarchy of learnings, so that each type is built upon each of the preceding types. In actual practice, however, adults as well as children may form concepts based upon few or incorrect facts, and the tenacity with which some people cling to certain attitudes or convictions may bear an inverse relationship to the number or correctness of the facts they possess or the adequacy of the concepts they have formed.

Even under the most ideal conditions, there are numerous obstacles in the way of developing concepts in the social studies, a field where relationships are complicated and often subtle, where interpretations are frequently controversial, and where even "facts" are sometimes subject to heated differences of opinion.

(The article then discusses five premises concerning the development of concepts in the social studies which are as follows.)

1. Pupils (and adults, too) often have erroneous conceptions rather than no conception in the field of social learning.
2. We must take care to start at the point or level of a child's understanding in introducing new learning.
3. Concepts must be built up slowly and carefully by repeated experience.
4. The essential elements of learning and experience must be separated out, stressed, and reinforced.
5. The remote in time and space, which characterizes the subject of history, should constantly be related to the familiar in our time and in our community.



# Notes and News

Merrill F. Hartshorn

## NCSS Business Meeting

The Annual Business Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies was held on November 25 during the 35th Annual Meeting of the Council in New York City. Following is a summary of agenda items discussed:

*First:* The Executive Secretary made a brief report on the finances, growth and problems which confront the Council. It was reported that the Council ended its fiscal year in stronger financial condition than was the case a year ago. During the past year membership income, and the number of paid memberships, reached an all-time high. The revenue from the sale of NCSS publications also was the largest on record. However, it was emphasized that the Council operates on a very small margin and the financial picture is not one to be complacent about. The cost of servicing each member exceeds the amount of membership dues. This gap may be closed by increasing the number of members and thereby the unit cost on each membership may be reduced. At present each membership is subsidized by (1) revenue from the sale of publications, (2) office space being furnished without charge by the National Education Association, and (3) the voluntary contribution of services by NCSS officers, writers and committee members. It was urged that every present member do all he can to secure new members and to promote the sale of publications. It was also urged that members acquaint themselves and others with the total work and services of the Council, and that services in addition to the publications received on membership be more fully understood and recognized as an essential part of membership service. This is important if the stature of our professional organization is to continue to grow and render the kind of service that it should to social studies teachers.

Appreciation was expressed to the National Education Association for providing the Council with office space in the first unit of its new building and for the new office furniture to be placed in the office. The new quarters should increase the operating efficiency of the headquarters office. Members were urged to support the National Education Association both

through membership and contributions to the NEA Building Fund.

It was announced that the NCSS would meet in Cleveland in 1956 with headquarters in the Hotel Cleveland. In 1957 the Annual Meeting will be in Pittsburgh, and in 1958 the Council will meet on the West Coast at a city to be selected at the meeting of the Board of Directors in Cleveland in 1956.

*Second:* The editor of *Social Education* made the point that the best report he could make to the membership is recorded in the eight issues of *Social Education* that have appeared in the past year. The membership must judge the work of the editor from the contents of the magazine. Members were urged to send constructive suggestions on the magazine to the editor as it is their magazine and they have a responsibility to shape it so that it will be as helpful to them as possible.

*Third:* The President of the Council for 1955, Edwin R. Carr, distributed a mimeographed report summarizing the work of each NCSS committee during the past year. The vital contribution of the work of committees to the program of the NCSS was emphasized, and the opportunities for membership participation in the work of the NCSS through serving on committees was pointed out. Members were urged to read these committee reports carefully to gain further insights into the work of their professional organization and to make suggestions for the future work of NCSS committees. Such suggestions may be sent to the Executive Secretary of the NCSS and they will be forwarded to the appropriate committee or members may send suggestions directly to the committee personnel. (Note: A limited number of copies of these mimeographed committee reports are available and members may secure a copy as long as the supply lasts by writing to the Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.)

*Fourth:* President Carr made a brief address on some of the issues social studies teachers and curriculum makers must resolve. This address will appear in the March issue of *Social Education*.

*Fifth:* The amendment to the NCSS constitution proposed at the 1954 Annual Meeting in Indianapolis (reported in full on page 81 of *Social Education* for February 1955) was voted on and carried unanimously. This amendment provides that there will be a President, a President-Elect and a Vice-President of the National Council for the Social Studies; that upon the expiration of the term of office of the President, the President-Elect becomes President and the Vice-President becomes President-Elect.

*Sixth:* Two new amendments to the NCSS constitution were presented. One dealt with the creation of a House of Delegates, the other with a change in the time of year when newly elected officers would take office. The NCSS constitution reads (the) "Constitution may be amended at the annual business meeting by a two-thirds majority of those members present, provided that notice shall have been given by the Board of Directors at a previous business meeting. . . ." Action on these amendments will be taken at the November 1956 meeting in Cleveland. A full report on the proposed amendments will appear in an early issue of *Social Education*.

*Seventh:* Election of officers for 1956. Ralph Adams Brown, chairman of the Nominations Committee presented the nominations for officers for 1956 as proposed by the Nominations Committee. Members of that Committee for 1955 were: Ralph Adams Brown, State Teachers College, Cortland, New York; Stanley E. Dimond, University of Michigan; Emlyn D. Jones, Seattle (Washington) Public Schools; Stella Kern, Chicago (Illinois) Public Schools; Ethel Ray, Terre Haute (Indiana) Public Schools; and Myrtle Roberts, Dallas (Texas) Public Schools. After the Nominations Committee presented its slate, nominations were called for from the floor and additional candidates were nominated for the Board of Directors. The following officers were elected for 1956:

President: Helen McCracken Carpenter, State Teachers College, Trenton, New Jersey

President-Elect: William H. Cartwright, Chairman, Department of Education, Duke University, Durham, North Carolina

Vice-President: Jack Allen, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee

Board of Directors for a three-year term:

Ralph W. Cordier, State Teachers College, Indiana, Pennsylvania

Howard H. Cummings, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C.

Emlyn D. Jones, Seattle (Washington) Public Schools

Board of Directors for a one-year term:

Dorothy J. Pauls, St. Louis (Missouri) Public Schools

### Service Center for History Teachers

The American Historical Association will establish a Service Center for Teachers of History in 1956. The Association believes it desirable to bridge the gap between the specialists in historical research in the universities and the teachers of history in the schools. It hopes to provide scholarly leadership in the attainment of high standards of history teaching throughout the nation.

To carry on the activities of the Center on an experimental basis for three years the Association received a grant of \$148,000 from the Ford Foundation. The Service Center will prepare and supervise the preparation of various types of pamphlets to aid secondary teachers; graded reading lists, pamphlets summarizing recent research and interpretations in the fields of history taught in the schools, discussions of the objectives and values of historical study, and other subjects which conferences with teachers show to be useful. The Association has no intention of entering the field of methods of teaching, already amply cared for by experts in education.

The Center will establish a list of fifty to sixty recognized professional historians in various parts of the country who are willing to consult with school administrators and teachers at their request. They will be ready to give specific advice on courses and materials in the history courses in schools. It is intended that these consultants should act only on request from the schools and all requests be cleared through the Center. The Association believes that the establishment of the list will encourage teachers and administrators to make more frequent requests for assistance and will give them the benefit of more numerous and more interested advisers.

The American Historical Association has long been interested in the teaching of history in the United States. In every decade since its foundation it has established committees to discuss the value of history in American education and to make recommendations concerning the organization and content of history courses. Since 1895 seven committees have produced and published more than twenty volumes and shorter reports which have been widely used and highly valued. It has now appointed a permanent Com-

mittee on Teaching composed of Professor Sidney Painter, Johns Hopkins University, chairman; Professor Erling Hunt, Columbia University; Professor Arthur Bestor, University of Illinois; Professor Joseph R. Strayer, Princeton University; Mrs. Edith E. Starratt, high school teacher Sherburne, New York; Dr. Arthur Dondineau, Superintendent of Schools, Detroit, Michigan; Professor Edgar B. Wesley, Stanford University; Mrs. Agnes Meyer, public representative, Washington, D.C.; and Dean Francis Keppel, School of Education, Harvard University.

The Service Center will be established on an experimental basis for three years. It will be immediately concerned with the growing gap between the teachers in the schools and the experts working on the frontiers of historical knowledge. Historical research, like that in every other discipline, has become increasingly complex and specialized in recent years. The teacher, who is not and should not be a specialist, cannot keep up with this research, and as a result it often takes twenty-five or thirty years before important new facts or interpretations are reflected in school teaching. Conversely, the specialist is unaware of the problems of the teacher and seldom puts his material in a form which can be used in the schools.

The Center will furnish active and direct assistance in the strengthening of courses in the schools and in the furnishing of effective teaching materials. At the same time it will acquaint the specialists in history with the problems of the schools.

### A Reminder

Dr. Edgar B. Wesley (Box 1201, Los Altos, California), who is now writing the Centennial History of the NEA, "asks that all persons concerned write him fully, enclosing clippings and documents dealing with personal recollections of fundamental and determinative addresses heard at NEA conventions, dramatic and eventful debates and clashes of opinion, personal contacts and appraisals of educational leaders, and any other experiences and comments you might have on items, large and small.

### Northeastern Ohio

The annual fall meeting of the Northeastern Ohio Council for the Social Studies was held at Kent State University, October 8. The program was based on the 25th Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies *Approaches to an Understanding of World Affairs*. Members of

the Ohio Council of Geography Teachers were special guests.

The morning session featured talks by Alfred A. Skerpan, professor of Russian History at Kent State University and Fulbright Research Scholar at the University of Helsinki in Finland during 1954-55, and Elbert B. Smith, Professor of History at Youngstown University and Fulbright Professor of American History at the University of Tokyo during 1954-55. Prof. Skerpan's topic was "What Should We Teach about Russia?" and Professor Smith spoke on "What Should We Teach about Japan and the Far East?"

At luncheon Professor Skerpan spoke informally on "Highlights of a Year in Finland."

The afternoon meetings consisted of discussion sessions on various grade levels. Discussion leaders were as follows: Elementary, Verna Walters of Kent State University; Eloise Peebles of Harris School in Akron; Maurice Johnson, Bryan School, Akron, and Helen Blateric, Harris School, Akron. Junior High School: Evelyn G. Weston, Geography Department, Kent State University; Richard Greenwalt, State Street Junior High School, Alliance; Stanley Gustaley, Perkins Junior High School, Akron; Harding Monroe, Bolich, Junior High School, Cuyahoga Falls. Senior High School: Ralph Kaczor, Economics Department, Kent State University; Leon Friedman Buchtel High School, Akron; Louise Hamilton, Central High School, Akron; Helen Wright, Alliance High School, Alliance.

New officers of the Northeastern Ohio Council are Robert Harris, Buchtel High School, Akron, President; Roy Parpart, Highland Elementary School, Stow, First Vice-President; Gabe Sanders, University of Akron, Second Vice-President; Elizabeth Stump, East High School, Akron, Treasurer. Harris L. Dante remains Executive Secretary.

New members of the Executive Committee are Louise Hamilton, Central High School, Akron; Arthur Schwartz, East High School, Youngstown; and Wesley S. Watson, Alliance Public Schools.

H.L.D.

All social studies teachers and social studies organizations are invited to send in materials for these columns. Send in notes on the activities of your organization or school and other items of interest to social studies teachers. Mail material as early as possible to Merrill F. Hartshorn, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. Washington 6, D.C. Contributors to this issue: Harris L. Dante.

# Pamphlets and Government Publications

Manson Van B. Jennings

In view of the reticence of our readers to write us concerning their reactions to this Department of *Social Education*, we welcome the annual meeting of the NCSS for the one opportunity it gives us each year to get reader reactions. At the New York meeting we sensed a virtually universal plea for help in locating suitable reading materials. Program participants and numerous individuals with whom we talked underscored the need for materials, particularly for those written at a readability and interest level suitable for average secondary-school youth.

We have long been conscious of this need and continue to be distressed at the number of times we are forced to conclude our review of a pamphlet with a statement to the effect that the particular title is suitable only for "mature" high school students and for teachers. In view of the shortage of effective reading materials for average students, we feel that any organization, foundation, or publisher that produces and distributes such materials at reasonable cost is making a valuable contribution to the education of American youth. At the same time, we feel certain that any who help us locate and publicize such materials will receive a deeply felt vote of thanks from their colleagues in the teaching profession.

To emphasize the paucity of materials written expressly for secondary-school youth, we shall devote the first section this month to the few titles among the many pamphlets spread before us that are of this type.

## Materials for Youth

*Get Into The Game* (62 p. 60 cents) is the twelfth pamphlet of the Living Democracy Series published by the Civic Education Center (Tufts University, Medford 55, Mass.) and available either from the Center or from the NCSS. In the form of a series of letters between a veteran wounded in Korea and his younger brother back home, *Get Into The Game* tells the story of politics at the local level—the tale of a political fight for the office of mayor. It is a dramatically written, personalized account that offers a high order of vicarious experience. The entire story emphasizes one major generalization, a concept that is central to most thinking on the subject of citizen-

ship education: "... be sure of this: in America, politics is everybody's game—your game. Get into it!"

*Our Presidents . . . At a Glance* (Pacific Coast Publishers, 1023 Chestnut St., Redwood City, Calif.: 41 p. \$1) presents a one-page portrait and biographical sketch of each of our presidents. *Great Americans At a Glance* (32 p. \$1) by the same publisher, employs a similar format to present thirty portraits and biographies of such notable statesmen, explorers, historians, and army and navy officers as William Penn, John Marshall, Henry Clay, Charles Evans Hughes, Daniel Boone, Robert Peary, William Sherman, George Bancroft, and Henry Adams.

*Our Constitution* (Birk and Co., 270 Park Ave., New York 17: 31 p. 16 cents plus postage with a minimum order of 20 copies) has an introduction by Allan Nevins and is written by Philip Van Doren Stern, author of *The Man Who Shot Lincoln*. The original text and a simplified version of the Constitution and its amendments are printed side by side in parallel columns. Fine black lines have been drawn through those parts of the original text that have been rescinded or changed. The result is a handy reference booklet that should prove useful in history and civics classes.

For younger readers, the National Aviation Education Council (1025 Connecticut Ave., N.W., Washington 6) has published several pamphlets designed "to enrich the curriculum materials with . . . booklets about aviation education." Of these, *The Farmer's Wings* (44 p. 50 cents) is the one most likely to be of interest to social studies teachers. Well illustrated and written in story form, *The Farmer's Wings* dramatizes the impact of modern technology upon farm management and the way of life of the mechanized farmer.

These are the only materials we have for review this month that were written for young people. We might, however, do well to mention two bibliographical helps that provide assistance in locating publications suitable for secondary-school youth. The 1955-56 edition of *Catalog of Publications About Britain* (British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20: 10 p. free) lists a considerable number of free and



inexpensive BIS publications that provide appropriate reading for average high school students. The Committee on International Relations of the N.E.A. and the American Association for the United Nations (Formal Education Dept., 345 East 46th St., New York 17) have joined hands in publishing a *Guide to Teaching: a Teacher's Handbook About the United Nations and World Affairs* (43 p. 15 cents) prepared by Eva M. Dratz. This extremely helpful guide includes a 17-page bibliography in which those titles particularly appropriate for primary, intermediate or high school grades are so designated.

### For Teachers

*The Adolescent in Your Family* (Supt. of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25: 110 p. 25 cents) has recently been revised and is one of the titles in the best-seller series that includes *Prenatal Care* (15 cents), *Infant Care* (15 cents), *Your Child From One to Six* (20 cents), and *Your Child From 6 to 12* (20 cents). The entire series is addressed primarily to parents, but teachers can learn a great deal from the series and on occasion may want to recommend it to parents.

The Junior Town Meeting League (356 Washington St., Middletown, Conn.) has published *Current Affairs and Social Studies* (31 p. free) which considers the problem of how to relate current affairs to the social studies content of the secondary-school curriculum.

The Committee on Teaching About Education of the Metropolitan School Study Council (525 West 120th St., New York 27) has published *What Do They Learn—About Education?* (33 p. 90 cents), a review of practices used in public schools to teach students about educational provisions and issues.

*Everybody Invests in Our Public Schools* (Associated Public School Systems, 525 West 120th St., New York 27: 55 p. \$1.50) provides suggestions, including bibliographical help, for developing a secondary-school unit on education. The primary focus of this teacher's resource unit is on providing youth with the kind of understanding of their schools that in the future will enable them to make wise decisions regarding the schools their children will attend.

*Federal Aid to Education—Boon or Bane?* (American Enterprise Association, 1012 14th St., N.W., Washington 5: 53 p. \$1) is a carefully documented study that examines the basic issues relating to the question of federal aid to education, and concludes that, "If federal aid should

be enacted during the second session of the 84th Congress . . . it will not be done because the states are unable to provide for the schools or because the American people wanted it."

### Tariffs and World Trade

The November, 1955, issue of *International Conciliation* (Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, Columbia Univ. Press, 2960 Broadway, New York 27: \$1 for annual subscription of six issues or 25 cents each) is devoted to *Organizing for World Trade* (60 p.). This booklet traces developments in the field of international trade since 1945, with particular attention to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), and presents the policy alternatives on which decisions must be made.

The American Tariff League (19 West 44th St., New York 36), which considers tariffs the fairest method of regulating foreign trade and for a variety of reasons opposes the Hull reciprocal trade agreements program, distributes several pamphlets free and in quantity. *Strength at Home* (62 p. plus 12-page 1955 supplement) presents the League's proposals on basic trade issues, together with useful tariff and foreign-trade information and statistics. Other materials include *The Story Behind GATT* (63 p.), *Innocence Abroad or World Trade in Ten Easy Lessons* (60 p.) which employs cartoons and text to illustrate how the views of an academic free trader are modified when he looks at the problems of foreign trade through the eyes of a manufacturer, *Free Trade—Panacea or Poison* (16 p.), and *Topics*, a four-page news leaflet which is published monthly.

On the subject of tariffs, W. M. Curtiss, a staff member of the Foundation for Economic Education (Irvington-on-Hudson, N.Y.) has written an article on "The Topsy-Turvy Tariff Tangle" in the November issue of *Ideas on Liberty*, a magazine with a *Reader's Digest* format published by the Foundation. *Ideas on Liberty* costs 50 cents for each issue and usually has from 15 to 20 articles. The Foundation, however, still makes available some free reprints as, for example, *Competition? Yes, but . . .* (21 p.), an address by Charles F. Phillips, president of Bates College, in which criticism is levelled against those business men who clamour for free competition but who inconsistently strive in every way possible to protect their own businesses from competition. The basic argument and philosophy presented in this article have definite implications for the tariff issue.

# Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

## Film of the Month

*Queen Victoria and Disraeli*. 20 minutes; 10-year lease, \$70; rental, apply to nearest educational film library. Teaching Films Custodians, Inc. 25 West 43rd St., New York 36.

Since 1946 the Audio-Visual Committee of the National Council for the Social Studies has been working with the staff of Teaching Films Custodians in the preparation of classroom motion pictures through the editing of feature-length film having outstanding social studies content. The film being reviewed this month is the twelfth completed as a result of this collaboration.

*Queen Victoria and Disraeli* is an excerpted version of the Twentieth Century-Fox Film Corporation's picture, *The Mudlark*. Superbly acted, the film gives life and spirit to the characters of Queen Victoria as played by Irene Dunn, and Disraeli portrayed by Alec Guinness. The action centers around a young urchin who lives precariously on the verge of starvation as a scavenger along the banks of the Thames. He has little education and represents, in this film, the miserable lot of too many of England's children.

Wheeler, the boy, has never seen his Queen for she has secluded herself at Windsor Castle since the death of her beloved husband, Prince Albert. When the boy finds a medallion of his Queen in the mud of the river bank, he determines to find this kindly looking lady. He manages to sneak into the castle and hides himself behind the curtains of the dining room to get a glimpse of the Queen.

Victoria has just received the Prime Minister on a state visit. He urges her to show herself again to her people and to lend her personal weight to his social reform program. Disraeli pleads with the Queen, but to no avail.

Later the Prime Minister is a guest at the Queen's table and in the midst of a pleasant meal, young Wheeler is discovered. Consternation reigns, for a rumor spreads that the boy is really a dwarf sent to assassinate the Queen. Disraeli appears before Parliament to answer questions concerning the incident. In one of the film's greatest moments, the Prime Minister uses

the incident to point out the injustices which the country is guilty of in respect to youngsters like Wheeler.

The film concludes as Wheeler, now washed and dressed, is brought before the Queen. In his admiration and respect Victoria sees her responsibility to her people, and the film ends as she appears in public before a London throng.

The committee saw in this film an opportunity to show the place of the Queen in England's government and the relationships which exist between the monarch and the Prime Minister. Enough of the need for reform and the program of Disraeli are portrayed in such a realistic fashion that a viewing of this film, it seems, cannot help but arouse the student's interest in this period of history.

## Motion Pictures

Cooperative League of the U.S.A., 343 S. Dearborn St., Chicago 4.

*Help Yourself to Ownership*. 11 minutes; rental, \$4. The story of the growth and significance of cooperatives and mutual businesses in the United States as told in terms of their impacts upon two families. Scenes from a cooperative meeting highlight democratic ownership and control. The tax status of cooperatives and their actual tax payments are depicted.

Rutgers University, Audio-Visual Department, the State University of New Jersey, 77 Hamilton St., New Brunswick, New Jersey.

*The Story of the N.L.R.B.* 23 minutes; rental, \$4. This is a Rutgers Institute of Management and Labor Relations film produced to promote a better understanding of labor-management relations. It describes the two most important functions of the N.L.R.B., namely the conducting of representative elections and the investigation and resolution of unfair labor practices. Through the eyes of Joe, a machinist in a textile plant, are traced the many steps necessary before a union can be certified. During the process of certification, unfair labor practices develop both on the side of management and labor. The film follows the charges as they are processed by the Regional Office and concludes with an analysis of the legal aspects of the issues.

Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st St., New York 17.

*The Search*. A series of motion pictures originally presented over CBS television. Each film runs for 27 minutes

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and sells for \$125. For rental rates contact your nearest educational film library. Designed to dramatize the search by American universities, and colleges for the ways and means to help mankind's lot, these films explain research projects of vital human concern. Among the films are *Johns Hopkins University* (diagnosis and care of deafness), *New York University* (physical rehabilitation of paraplegic war veterans), *University of Illinois* (helping to extend the average life span of the individual), *Fisk University* (how Baltimore has been aided in race relations by the research of a distant university), *University of California* (the rehabilitation of criminals), *Wayne University* (the attack upon juvenile delinquency).

*North Pole*. 11 minutes; sale \$55. Combines animation and photography to tell of early explorations in the North Polar region, to demonstrate the importance of polar routes in modern aviation, and to tell of current exploration in the region.

### Filmstrips

Audio-Visual Associates, Box 243, Bronxville, New York.

*Adventures in Seeing*. A free filmstrip in color. Answers 14 of the most common questions on vision asked by fourth and fifth grade children.

Audio Visual School Service, 48 East 29th St., New York 16.

*Aviation and World Understanding*. Free filmstrip. Sponsored by Trans World Airlines, this filmstrip shows

how air trade benefits us and our neighbors, how it makes all peoples of the world our neighbors, how it promotes cultural exchange and brings governments into closer contact with each other.

The Jam Handy Organization, 2821 East Grand Boulevard, Detroit 11.

*First Experiments About Weather*. Series of six filmstrips in color; sale, complete set, \$27; each strip, \$4.75. Introduces primary grade children to the scientific method of problem solving. Titles are: "What Is an Experiment?" "How Does Water Get Into the Air?" "What Makes Things Dry Faster?" "Where Do Clouds Come From?" "What Is Wind?" "Why Is Night Cooler Than Day?"

Visual Education Consultants, Inc., 2066 Helena St., Madison 4, Wisconsin

*Our Country*. Sale, \$3.50. Tells basic facts about our country and our condition and explains our nation's greatness in simple terms.

*Conquest of the Desert*. Sale, \$3.50. Explains why there are arid zones in the world, where they are, and the soil problem in each zone. Explains why the entire world must help solve the problem of keeping the deserts from spreading.

Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st St., New York 17.

*Senior Safety Series*. Set of 7 filmstrips; sale, \$36; each \$6. Designed for older students and adults these film-

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strips stress safety as an attitude rather than as a mere set of rules. Includes suggestions for making the environment safer, and outlines good safety practices for everyday living. Titles are "Making Our Schools Safe," "Safety in Shops and Labor," "Safety in the Water," "Preventing and Controlling Fire," "Safety Behind the Wheel," "Making Your Home Safe," and "Safety in Sports and Recreation."

**Educational Television**

An excellent review of national education television is provided in a free booklet entitled "Presenting National Educational Television" distributed by Educational Television and Radio Center, 1610 Washtenaw Avenue, Ann Arbor, Michigan. The booklet also describes the national exchange of programs sponsored by this nonprofit educational organization.

Experimentation in closed circuit broadcasting has recently been carried on at the Penn State University under a grant from the Fund for the advancement of Education. Results indicate that students accept televisual instruction on the college level as routine, and most of them felt that they learned about the same via television as they would have otherwise. This year the project encompasses eight to 10 courses with some 3000 students. New York University

is also experimenting with the teaching of college classes over closed circuit television.

**Helpful Articles**

Creveling, Harold. "Mapping Cultural Groups in an American Industrial City," *Economic Geography*. 31:364-371, October 1955. The use of sample interviews to obtain data for the construction of a map showing a reasonably complete picture of the areal distribution of cultural groups.

Harston, Hazel. "Emphasizing the Creative Arts on the Bulletin Board," *American Childhood*. 41:24, December 1955. Outlines steps in planning a pupil-made display in the early grades.

Koskey, Thomas A. "Let Your Bulletin Boards Live!" *Teaching Tools*. 2:140-142, Fall 1955. Some suggestions for eliminating ineffectual displays in student-created bulletin boards on the high school level.

McGee, Al. "Television Minus Torture," *National Parent-Teacher*. 30:26-28, November 1955. A review of the activities in non-commercial television.

McNee, Robert. "On the Value of Sketch Maps," *The Journal of Geography*. 54:416-417, November 1955. The use of free hand maps drawn on blackboard or drawing pad to present geographical facts clearly and forcefully.

Myers, Dorothy and Anbrum, Ward, "Equipment—How Much and How Used," *The Nation's Schools*. 56:78-82, December 1955. The results of a survey in Missouri showing what audio-visual equipment the schools have and the uses to which it is put.



# Notes on Books

Focus: The Behavioral Sciences

Edward T. Ladd

## A Book for the Department Library

THE LONELY CROWD: A STUDY OF THE CHANGING AMERICAN CHARACTER. By David Riesman, Nathan Glazer, and Reuel Denney. Abridged by the authors. Garden City: Doubleday and Company, 1953. 349 p. \$-95.

The large reported sale of this edition, coupled with a story in *Time*, which featured the book and made Author David Riesman cover man for the week, prove that a scholarly book in the social sciences may reach a large audience in a relatively short time.

The book is about social character, which is defined as that part of character which is shared among significant social groups and is the product of the experiences of these groups. Three types of people are discussed.

1. *Tradition-directed people*. This group needs no long explanations. The society is simple and children learn how to live in face-to-face relationships with adults.

2. *Inner-directed people*. The inner-directed man came into existence during the Renaissance and Protestant Reformation. These people know where they are going. They received directions early in life from parents, relatives, and social peers. These directions were internalized and became a gyroscope. However, the inner-directed man had his great days in the nineteenth Century. He is being replaced by—

3. *Other-directed people*. Twentieth Century man depends on his contemporaries for direction. Signals come to him from parents, peers, mass media, and he reacts to the signals. The schools with their emphasis on adjustment have made a considerable contribution to man's increasing other-direction.

The word "directed" is important; it indicates that no one is fully inner or other, but these are the directions.

There are three ways that an individual may react to the pressures of the society in which he lives. Each of the three is open to both inner-directed and other-directed people. They are:

1. He may become *adjusted*. This idea needs little development here for a group of readers familiar with guidance literature.

2. He may become *anomic*. This term is synonymous with maladjusted except that maladjustment usually assumes that the culture is one to which the individual should adjust. Nazi Germany, the delinquent neighborhoods of our large cities, and a long list of other cultures could be named where any individual should be given considerable credit for refusing to adjust.

3. He may become *autonomous*. In general, here I believe is the term that thoughtful teachers have been waiting for. There has been a growing feeling in education that adjustment wasn't the answer. The authors have concluded their book with a discussion of the outlook for the autonomous people in our society.

Two of the things which teachers today seem to need are: 1) insight into pupils; 2) insight in the society in which pupils live. This book is very useful for helping develop both. Moreover, the social sciences are outgrowing the social studies classrooms to make vital contributions to general educational policy. All teachers and school administrators at all levels can profit from this volume.

HOWARD H. CUMMINGS

U. S. Office of Education

## On the Intellectual Frontier

CULTURAL PATTERNS AND TECHNICAL CHANGE. Edited by Margaret Mead. New York: New American Library of World Literature (Mentor), 1955. 352 p. \$-50.

This "paper-back" addresses itself to one of the most important movements of our time, the widening distribution of technological skills and apparatus among the peoples of the world. The authors are concerned for the mental health and the integrity of societies most involved in these changes—the so-called underdeveloped areas. A group of anthropologists, with psychiatric advice, prepared this book under sponsorship of the World Federation for Mental Health and UNESCO. Intended as a guide to *kinds* of cultural problems likely to arise, it provides no neat catalog of problems or solutions.

A basic assumption—as well as message—is that any culture is a "systematic and integrated

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whole." Therefore, each of the culture's practices and beliefs can only be understood and evaluated in the context of the whole culture; this being the meaning of "cultural relativism."

The point is hammered home that changes, in agriculture, public health, etc., which are clearly improvements by our western standards may not be thereby completely justified. Such change may disintegrate patterns of basic religious significance, sources of personal security and group cohesion, etc. Since change is presumably for the benefit of the individuals affected, the innovators are obligated to avoid these harmful effects, or provide for satisfying shifts in local values through "fundamental education."

In the absence of clinical experience in underdeveloped areas the authors deduce principles of mental health from western psychiatric experience combined with interdisciplinary observations in these areas. These principles lead to several general recommendations; for summarized examples: members of the local culture should participate as much as possible at all levels of innovation; "feedback," or constant evaluation of effects, should be built into all purposeful change; etc.

Although avowedly a "manual," this ambitious book is essentially an advocacy of a frame of mind with which to approach this vital current problem. The kind of thinking called for, cultural relativism, is not "natural" or provided to any degree in the training, and even experience, of most fields involved in technical development.

Although there is an abundance of colorful experiences drawn from underdeveloped areas, readability and the sharpness with which important points are made vary considerably. An unfortunate omission is the failure to refer to the crucial involvement of world politics in the shifting distribution of technical skills and facilities. At least some reference to its influence seems required for realistic treatment of the subject.

However, this approach to so complex a field is something of a pioneer effort. The authors do set forth a profusion of stimulating insights which promise great advantage if heeded by workers in this movement of vast importance.

ALVIN G. EDGELL

Washington Seminar on International Affairs  
A.F.S.C.

## New Civics Text for Grade 7 or 8

### CIVICS FOR YOUNG AMERICANS

This unusual new book teaches how government functions *and* how the individual functions in relation to government, stressing the meaning of good citizenship. This is done through classroom discussion, use of pertinent source materials, visits into the community, and through reading, writing, and follow-up activities.

Eight big features include: (1) clear-cut, logical organization, (2) concrete approach to concept development, (3) each chapter a civic experience, (4) correlated activities at the end of each chapter, (5) functional illustrations, (6) easy-to-read style, (7) varied treatment of topics, and (8) concrete aids to "teacher-pupil planning."

Write for further information

*Row, Peterson and Company*

Evanston, Illinois

White Plains, New York

### Books to Use in Teaching

**FACING LIFE'S PROBLEMS.** By Lavone A. Hanna.  
Chicago: Rand McNally, 1955. 712 p. \$3.60.

In an era threatened by non-thinking conformity this book offers a modest challenge to the young person. It says, in effect, "Here are some of your problems. Here is information to help you understand them and here are ways to attack them. Now, what do you think? What are you going to do?" Particularly noteworthy in this respect is the chapter on civil liberties.

Unfortunately one becomes apprehensive lest the value of this large book be defeated by its physical bulk or by the multiplicity of the problems presented between its covers. Motivated by a concern for high-school seniors as present and future workers, as young married people, as military personnel and as citizens, the author and contributors grouped the problems into four major divisions: seven chapters covering the material generally offered in social or life-adjustment courses; four chapters in which basic economic concepts are explained and consumer problems discussed; four chapters of subject-matter usually designated as civics; and three chapters on ideo-

logical and economic interrelationships and the prospects for world peace. A brief concluding section is called "Facing Your Civic Responsibilities."

The design of the book is a laudable effort to escape the content-vocabulary-questions-activities-references formula. Each chapter opens with an anecdote, proceeds with an excellently illustrated and well-written elucidation of the subject interspersed with questions and suggestions. New concepts are explained in text, as: "Usually *extradition*, the surrender of the fugitive, takes place." All new terms and concepts are listed at the chapter's end, as are reference books and pamphlets. Audio-visual aids are noted in the text and listed categorically in an appendix.

Even with this design, teachers might worry about the amount of verbalization and the number of concepts involved. High-school seniors who are not planning further education may not be enthusiastic or skillful readers. Some might be defeated by the forty-page chapter on understanding economic relations in which fifty-seven economic concepts and terms are presented. Or, assuming that many of these pupils come from rather poor homes, how excited will they be

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about the plight of Marry who spends so much of her allowance on ski-clothing and equipment that she has none left for ski trips?

The obvious answer is that the skillful teacher will excite the pupils, help them to remember, reenforce the concepts and, especially, motivate them to the physical exertion of handling the book. Perhaps some teacher can be persuasive enough to teach the value of three or four small books instead of one large volume.

KATHERINE M. CARROLL

Education Department  
Roosevelt University

cal organization. It contains few of the innovations in recent problems textbooks reported in 1950 by M. V. B. Jennings. *Problems in American Democracy* surveys, with about seventeen pages devoted to each thirty aspects of American economic, social, and political life. Teachers will appreciate the variety of suggested study activities at the ends of chapters, although they are sometimes only vaguely suggestive. This third revision differs from the former chiefly in substitution of recent data on some points and in rewriting of the last two chapters.

JONATHON C. MCLENDON

Department of Education  
Duke University

**PROBLEMS IN AMERICAN DEMOCRACY.** By S. Howard Patterson, A. W. S. Little, and H. R. Burch. New York: Macmillan, Third Revised Edition, 1955. 658 p. \$4.20.

This volume constitutes the latest revision of one of the pioneer textbooks for the modern problems course, first published in 1922. That it has survived more than thirty years in the textbook market testifies strongly to its apparent substance and popularity. The book evidences conservatism in social outlook and in pedagogi-

We have been both surprised and pleased as we have looked over a new college textbook, *Contemporary Social Issues*, by Lee, Burkhart, and Shaw (Crowell, \$3.95). It is a book of readings deliberately drawn up to provoke thoughtful controversy among students in an integrated social studies course. The readings are arranged to illuminate thirty problems, not topics, but problems, each complete with a question mark. They



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range from "How unique are the culture and character of America?", on which, among others, Ilya Ehrenburg and Clyde Kluckhohn are heard, to "Is the office of the President equal to the job?", with Harold Laski and the *Saturday Evening Post's* Alfred Steinberg.

The whole seems to have been put together thoughtfully yet imaginatively, it makes good reading, and it should do a lot to make possible good teaching and learning.

Other Books to Know About

TRUANTS FROM LIFE. By Bruno Bettelheim. Glencoe: Free Press, 1955. 511 p. \$5.00.

THE COMMUNITY AND THE DELINQUENT: COOPERATIVE APPROACHES TO PREVENTING AND CONTROLLING DELINQUENCY. By William C. Kvaraceus. Yonkers: World Book Co., 1954. 566 p. \$4.50.

1,000,000 DELINQUENTS. By Benjamin Fine. Cleveland: World Publishing Co., 1955. 377 p. \$4.00.

Since 1948 in the United States there has been a steady rise in the incidence of juvenile delinquency. Many of us, frustrated by this complex problem, are searching for easy answers. "Per-

missiveness" and "the schools" are two popular scapegoats. The authors of these books make no such simplistic analyses. They suggest no panaceas. They do offer many helpful insights and some hope.

Since 1944 Bettelheim, principal of the University of Chicago's school for seriously disturbed children, has attempted to establish a treatment center based upon total residential psychotherapy. That is, he has tried to structure every element of the children's environment in terms of each element's therapeutic value for each child.

In *Love Is Not Enough* Bettelheim formulated the school's basic educational and therapeutic philosophy and program. Now he uses case histories of four children to show how the rehabilitation of a variety of disturbed children actually proceeds, and how such children fare after leaving the school.

Because they are excellently written, all of these histories make the children live—this is especially true of Harry, an habitual truant. When Harry came to the school he was indeed a "truant from life." At the school, for the first time, Harry experienced a context of unconditional love. Gradually love enabled Harry to gain

**Reader's Digest Educational Department**  
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Fine discovered no single causes and no simple panaceas. He did observe that most delinquents feel extremely rejected; that this seemed to be at the root of their delinquency; that usually they had been rejected by adults, peers, and community institutions prior to their delinquency; and that all too often rejection was a pervasive element of their "rehabilitation" environment, particularly in public training institutions. In place of rejection, a get-tough policy, and retribution, Fine says, delinquents need patience, understanding, and individualized treatment. And he gives these words enough content to lift them out of the realm of cliché.

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All three authors believe that an etiological approach is basic to any workable program of prevention and rehabilitation. Also, if not directly stated, there is the obvious implication in all three books that schools should be concerned about and responsible for the emotional health as well as the more academic and vocational education of their students. These authors do not propose that teachers be psychiatrists. They do insist that teachers need to deal with their students as whole persons who need to be loved as well as trained. Indeed, all three seem to be telling us that in the successful process of developing mature, responsible persons, love and training are not divorced.

DON O. WATKINS

Institute of Ethics and Politics  
Wesleyan University

To those who have been looking for a clear, straightforward, and authoritative summary of what Freud wrote about the normal personality, we suggest spending some hours with Calvin S. Hall's *A Primer of Freudian Psychology*, recently issued by Mentor as a 35-cent reprint.

COMMUNITY IN CRISIS: THE ELIMINATION OF SEGREGATION FROM A PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM. By James A. Tipton. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia, 1953. 180 p. \$3.75.

*Community in Crisis* is one of the forerunners of a number of studies of the desegregation problem which it considers. Together with Williams' and Ryan's *Schools in Transition*, Kenneth Clark's long article in the *Journal of Social Issues* and other studies, it provides helpful information for those who will be involved practically in the thousands of desegregation experiences of years to come. Moreover, studies such as these let social science in on the ground floor of a massive quasi-controlled social change not only to accumulate valuable data but also to develop new scientific method.

The book deals with desegregation in "Central City." In 1945 several hundred white students in one of "Central City's" high schools, the only one attended by Negro and white children, demanded expulsion of their Negro classmates. At the same time, fortuitously, there were present in "Central City" consultants of the Bureau for Inter-Cultural Education, who had been develop-

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ing a plan for inter-cultural education in the schools there. The consultants, of which the author was one, found themselves in the midst of a violent transition instead of the quiet, orderly job of attitude change which they had planned. "Central City" and the nation are fortunate that they were able to assist in solving the problem and in perceptively recording what happened.

The entire history of the transition is one of the strengthening of democratic forces in the community to a point where lawlessness was suppressed and enlightened leadership accepted. This transition involved the application of power by those in positions of legal, moral and economic authority. As time went on, school officials and law enforcement authorities made it increasingly clear that sanctions would be imposed on those violating truancy or other laws. A state law against "racketeering in hatred" was enforced on a warrant sworn out by school authorities. Opinion-molding forces in the community made prejudice increasingly unrespectable.

A criticism sometimes heard from "liberals" is that it is unfortunate that proponents of civil rights speak so approvingly of the success achieved by "authoritarian" methods. But is there anything authoritarian about firmly enforcing

law which has been arrived at in a constitutional and democratic manner? Freedom can only exist within a framework of respected, enforced law.

The Tipton work is a valuable contribution to those who would understand and live in a system of "Equal Justice Under Law."

**JACK GREENBERG**

National Association for the  
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### **Publications Received**

- Beebe, Lucius and Clegg, Charles. *The American West*. New York: E. P. Dutton, 1955. 511 p. \$12.50.  
Brace, Richard M. *The Making of the Modern World: From The Renaissance to the Present*. New York: Rinehart, 1955. xxvii + 899 p. \$6.50.  
Cressey, George B. *Land of the 500 Million: A Geography of China*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1955. xv + 387 p. \$10.00.  
Dean, John P. and Rosen, Alex. *A Manual of Intergroup Relations*. Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1955. xiii + 193 p. \$3.75.  
Friedmann, Georges. *Industrial Society: The Emergence of the Human Problems of Automation*. Glencoe: The Free Press, 1955. 436 p. \$6.00.  
Wilcox, Francis O. and Marcy, Carl M. *Proposals for Changes in the United Nations*. Washington, D. C., Brookings Institution, 1955. xiv + 537 p. \$5.00.



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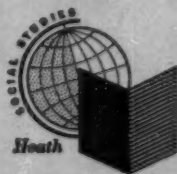
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